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LATIN GRAMMAR

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ALLEN AND GREENOUGH'S

SHORTER LATIN GRAMMAR

FOR SCHOOLS AND ACADEMIES

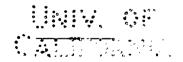
Condensed and Revised

BY

JAMES BRADSTREET GREENOUGH

ASSISTED BY

ALBERT A. HOWARD



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PREFACE.

THE present editors hold as the result of their experience, that a book designed to instruct in the principles of Latin construction, intended for the use of pupils and young teachers, ought to contain practically the whole grammar of the language. This is especially true of the teachers, because the book from which one teaches is very likely to limit one's own acquisitions. They are, however, aware that a more compendious book may be sufficient with some teachers, and under certain conditions even superior. They have, therefore, endeavored to abbreviate their complete work by omitting from it such portions as could not give appreciable information to the students in preparatory schools. This has been done by noting all the references in the books used in such schools, and saving these along with all the general principles under which they came. It is hoped that by this method nothing has been omitted which was essential, and nothing retained which might not at some time answer a question raised even among preparatory pupils. In order to facilitate the use of the two books side by side, and the later substitution of the larger work, the original notation of sections and subsections has been carefully retained.

In the treatment of the subject, with the exception of all general linguistic lore, the lines of the other work have been pursued. For such lore the student and teacher are referred to the larger grammar.

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But in regard to hidden quantities, a subject which has only lately begun to be studied, and whose uncertainties ought not to be allowed to trouble the beginner, the editors have pursued an even more conservative course than before, marking only such vowels long as could, in their opinion, be reasonably proved to be so, and leaving as presumably short all others, even those which many persons, and even the editors themselves, were inclined to think long.

CAMBRIDGE, September 1, 1896.

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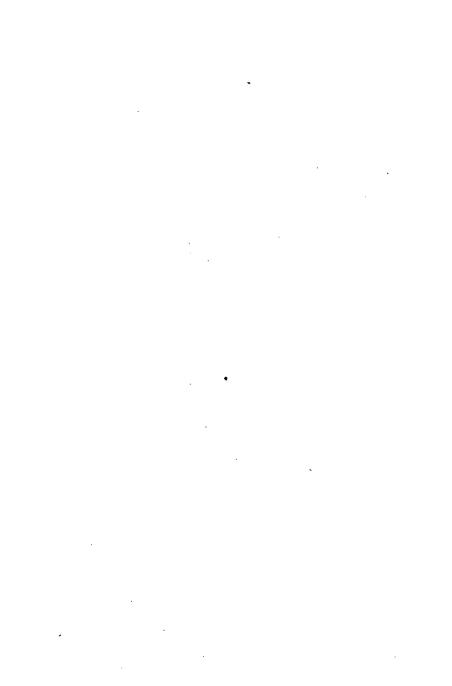
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LATIN GRAMMAR.

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INTRODUCTION.

ELEMENTARY DEFINITIONS.

1. The study of Grammar includes: (I) the Forms of Words (Etymology); (2) the Uses of Words, or the ways of connecting them in sentences (Syntax); (3) the Forms of Verse (Prosody).

PARTS OF SPEECH.

2. Words are Nouns, Adjectives, Pronouns, Verbs, Participles, Adverbs, Prepositions, Conjunctions, or Interjections. These are called Parts of Speech.

Note. — There is no word in Latin for the Articles a, an, the.

- 3. A Noun is the name of a person, place, or thing: as, Cæsar, Rome, house, strength, glory. Names of persons and places are Proper Nouns; the others are Common Nouns.
- **4.** An **Adjective** is a word which describes a noun: as, a *brave* man, a *green* tree.
- 5. A **Pronoun** is a word which denotes a person, place, or thing without naming or describing it. It may be —
- a. Personal: I, we (1st person); thou, ye, you (2d person); he, she, it, they (3d person).

NOTE. — There is in Latin no personal pronoun of the 3d person, but a demonstrative may be used instead; and the others are used only for emphasis, being commonly given in the verb-ending.

- b. Possessive: my, mine; thy, thine; his, her, hers; our, ours; yours; their, theirs; myself, himself, themselves, and the like.
- c. Reflexive: these end, in English, in -self or -selves, following a verb or preposition: as, I blame myself; he came to himself.
 - d. Demonstrative: this, these; that, those.
 - e. Relative: who, which; whoever, whatever.
 - f. Interrogative: who? which? what?

Note. — Possessives, demonstratives, relatives, and interrogatives all have the form of adjectives, and are called Adjective Pronouns.

The relatives whoever, whatever are called Indefinite Relatives.

- 6. A Verb is a word which asserts, asks, or commands: as, he speaks, do you know? come to me.
- 7. A Participle is an adjective which describes the act or condition asserted by a verb: as, speaking, chosen.
- 8. An Adverb is a word used with a verb or adjective to express time, place, or manner: as, now, here, nobly done.
- 9. A Preposition is a word connecting a noun in a dependent relation with other words in the same sentence: as, in, from, among, into, beyond.
- 10. A Conjunction is a word used to connect sentences or parts of sentences: such words are and, or, if, but.

Note. — Some words, — as, while, because, till, nevertheless, — used both to define and to connect, are called Adverbial Conjunctions.

11. Interjections are mere exclamations, and are not, strictly, Parts of Speech: as, ah! ho! alas!

THE SENTENCE.

12. A Sentence is a form of words containing an Assertion, a Question, an Exclamation, or a Command; and it is, accordingly, declaratory, interrogative, exclamatory, or imperative.

13. The Subject of a sentence denotes the person or thing spoken of: it may be (I) a Noun, a Pronoun, or a Phrase; or (2) it may be given in the ending of a Verb.

NOTE. — This latter case is regular in Latin: as, doce-o, I teach; doce-t, he (or she) teaches; doce-nt, they teach.

14. The **Predicate** is that which is spoken of the Subject. It may be a Verb; and it must contain a verb. Thus a whole Latin sentence may consist of a verb alone.

Note. — If the Predicate is a verb alone — as, "the sun shines" — this verb is called Neuter, or Intransitive; if the verb requires an Object — as, "I see the sun"—it is called Transitive. A noun or adjective used with a neuter verb to complete the statement — as, "these men are brave"—is called the Complement.

15. The Object of a verb denotes the person or thing affected by the action: as, I wrote the letter.

Note. — The Object may be direct or indirect: in the sentence, "I wrote you a letter," letter is the Direct object, and you the Indirect.

- 16. A Phrase is a group of words, without subject or predicate of its own, which may be used as an adjective or adverb: as, "a man of great virtue" (Adjective Phrase); "I will come within three days" (Adverbial Phrase).
- 17. A Clause is a group of words, with subject and predicate of its own, used to add something to a sentence, or to qualify its meaning: as, "I spoke and he listened"; "when he had heard, he went away."

Note. — A sentence so modified is called *compound*; if one part (as in the second example) depends on the other, it is called *complex*.

18. A noun, pronoun, adjective, or verb is said to AGREE with another word, when it is required to be in the same *gender*, *number*, *case*, or *person*. A verb or preposition is said to GOVERN a noun, when it requires a noun in connection to be in a particular Case.

PART FIRST. — ETYMOLOGY.

1. LETTERS AND SOUNDS.

ALPHABET.

The Latin alphabet is the same as the English (which, in fact, was borrowed from it), except that it has no w.

Classification of the Letters.

1. The letters are divided into Vowels (*litterae vōcālēs*) and Consonants (*litterae cōnsonantēs*). Two vowels united so as to express one sound are called a Diphthong.

The Vowels are a, e, i, o, u, y. The rest of the letters are Consonants. The Diphthongs are ae, au, ei, eu, oe, ui.

2. Consonants. — a. p. b, c (k), q, g, t, d, as also ch and th, are called Mutes (Explosives, Momentary sounds).

These are produced by an entire stoppage of the breath and a subsequent explosion. They are classified as follows:—

I. p, c (k), q, t, s, are called Surds (tenues).

These are without vocal tone.

2. b, g, d, z, are called Sonants (mediae).

These are accompanied by a slight vocal tone.

3. ch and th are called Aspirates.

In these a breath follows the explosion. They are found chiefly in words borrowed from the Greek. **ph**, which also was borrowed from the Greek, probably was never sounded as an aspirate in Latin.

b. m and n are called Nasals.

These are pronounced with the same position of the organs as \mathbf{b} and \mathbf{d} , except that the nasal passage is opened instead of closed. A third nasal, \mathbf{n} adulterinum (like n in ink), corresponding in the same way to \mathbf{g} , existed in the language, but had no separate sign.

8. From the organs of speech chiefly used in the utterance of the mutes and nasals they are divided into Labials (pronounced with the lips), Palatals (with the palate), and Linguals (with the tongue).

Their relations are seen in the following table: -

	SURD.	SONANT.	ASPIRATE.	NASAL.
Labial:	p	b	wanting	m
Palatal:	c (k), q	g	ch	n (as in ink)
Lingual:	t	đ	th	n (as in rent).

a. Other useful special classes of sounds are distinguished, as, — Liquids: 1, m, n, r.

Fricatives (Spirants): f, ph, th (not aspirate, the same as in thin), h, s, z.

Sibilants: 8, z.

Double Consonants: x (cs), z (ds).

Semi-vowels: i, v (see § 4).

- b. h is merely a breathing.
- 4. Semi-Vowels.—i and v (u) before a vowel in the same syllable are consonants and have the sound of English consonant v and w respectively. (Cf. i and u in pinion, unguent.) They are sometimes called Semi-Vowels.

Note. — The Latin alphabet had no separate signs for the semi-vowels; but used i for both vowel and consonant i, and \mathbf{v} or \mathbf{u} (without distinction) for both vowel and consonant \mathbf{v} (u). The character \mathbf{j} was unknown in classical times, and \mathbf{u} was but a graphic variation of \mathbf{v} . In mediæval Latin \mathbf{j} and \mathbf{v} came to be used to indicate the consonant sounds of \mathbf{i} and \mathbf{v} (u), and this usage is often followed by modern editors in writing small letters. In writing capitals, however, the forms \mathbf{J} and \mathbf{U} are avoided. Thus, iuuenis, iuvenis, or juvenis, — but IVVENIS.

In this book vowel and consonant i are both represented by the same character, i; but v is used for the consonant, u for the vowel sound of v (u). Thus, iūstus, vir, iuvenis.

5. The Romans distinguished Long vowels from Short in sound, but had no regular means to express the difference. This difference is called **Quantity**, and such vowels are said to be long or short by nature.

In modern times short vowels are marked thus: ă, ě; and long, thus: ā, ē; those that may be pronounced either long or short, thus: ă, ē. In this book all simple vowels not marked are supposed to be short. But final o and i are marked according to their prevailing quantity in poetry, though they sometimes vary from this.

6. The character c (surd palatal) originally stood for the sonant palatal (g).

Hence, a, b, c, but Alpha, Beta, Gamma. This force it always retained in the abbreviations C. (for Gāius), and Cn. (Gnaeus).

7. Till after the age of Augustus the use of u (vowel) after u (v) was avoided. This was done either by preserving o, when but for this tendency it would have become u, as in voltus (but cultus), servos (but dominus); or in case of quu, by writing cu, as in ecus (for equos, later equus).

Hence, where in inflection quu would appear, it should be written and pronounced cu, as, ecus, equi, sequitur, secuntur.

Phonetic Variations.

- 8. Variations of sound are of two classes:—
- a. Inherited differences of form in the same root (see § 22).
- b. Unconscious changes of sounds developed in course of time in the language itself.
- 9. Inherited differences appear in variations of vowels, and less commonly in liquids connected with vowels.
- a. Vowels vary between long and short of the same kind: as, emō, I buy, ēmī, I bought; regō, I rule, rēgīna, a queen.
 - b. Vowels vary in quality: as, pendo, I weigh, pondus, weight.
- c. Vowels vary between a short vowel of one quality and a long vowel or diphthong of another: as, miser, wretched, maestus, sad.
- d. Liquids are transposed with vowels, sometimes with change of the vowel: as, sperno, I spurn, sprevi, I spurned.
- 10. Unconscious changes occur in both vowels and consonants.
- a. Vowels and diphthongs are weakened: as, factus, made, confectus, made up; agmen, a march, agminis, of a march.
- b. Two vowels coming together are very often contracted: as, cogo for co-ago; obit for obiit; nil for nihil.

- c. Vowels are often lost between two consonants (syncope): as, audācter for audāciter.
- d. Vowels are inserted between two consonants in the effort to pronounce a difficult combination of sounds (cf. sailors' hellum for helm): as, Herculēs for Herclēs, drachuma for drachma.
- 11. a. Consonants are substituted one for another. Thus: r for s between two vowels or before m or n: as, eram (root ES), generis (for †genesis, from genus), maereō (cf. maestus).
- b. Consonants are omitted: as, examen (exagmen), caementum (caed-mentum), autumnus (auctumnus, root AUG), pērgō (per-regō).

Especially h: as, dēbeō (dē-habeō). And consonant i and v: as, conicio (con-iacio), prorsus (pro-vorsus).

- c. Consonants are unconsciously inserted in passing from one sound to another: as, sūmō, I take, sūmpsī, I took.
- d. Consonants and vowels are unconsciously changed (dissimilation) to avoid a repetition of the same sound in two successive syllables: parīlia (for palīlia, from Palēs), merīdiēs (for medīdiēs).
- e. A consonant is changed by the influence of a neighboring sound, —
- I. Into the same sound as the neighbor (complete assimilation): as, cēssī (cēd-sī), summus (sup-mus), sella (sed-la).
- 2. Into a sound of the same organ or the same quality (or both) as the neighbor (partial assimilation) (see table of mutes, § 3): as, conterō (com-terō, labial to lingual), scrīptus (scrīb-tus, sonant to surd), sēgmentum (†secmentum, surd to sonant), imperō (in-perō, lingual to labial).
- **12.** Variations of Spelling occur in manuscripts and inscriptions, and especially in modern editions. Most are provided for in Vocabularies.
- a. The letters and sounds of ci and ti are interchanged before a vowel: nūntiō (nūnciō), contiō (conciō), condiciō (conditiō).
- b. Several words are written sometimes with and sometimes without an initial h: as, harēna (arēna), erus (herus), umerus (humerus), umor (humor).
- c. In later Latin, 5, ae, and oe became alike in sound (like a in fate), and are often confounded in writing: as, faenus (fēnus, foenus).
- d. Other words variously spelled are: adulēscēns, adolēscēns; ahēneus, aēneus; ānulus, annulus.

Combinations.

- 13. Two words are often united in writing, and sometimes in sound. Thus, —
- a. Conjunctions or other particles and pronouns are sometimes connected: as in etenim, ūnusquisque, iamdūdum, iamdiū, sīquis, sīquidem; also a few short phrases, as, quārē, quamobrem, rēspūblica, iūsiūrandum, paterfamiliās, tēcum.
- b. The verb est, is, is joined with the preceding word, especially in the old poets, when the two would be united by elision: as, homost, pericuiumst, qualist (qualis est) (like thou'rt, I've).
- c. Similar contractions are found in vin' (visne), scin' (scisne). sis (si vis), sodes (si audes), sultis (si vultis). So in English, don't, won't (wol not).

Syllables.

- 14. In Latin every word has as many syllables as it has vowels or diphthongs.
- a. In the division of words into syllables a single consonant or a mute followed by a liquid between two vowels must be written and pronounced with the latter.
- b. This rule is sometimes improperly extended to doubled consonants, or any combination of consonants which can be used to begin a word: as, ho-spes, mā-gnus; but usage varies.
 - c. In compounds, the parts should be separated: as, ab-est, ob-latus.

Kindred Forms.

15. In English words derived from the Latin, the original letters are retained (as *ambition* from **ambitio**). But in native English words which are cognate with the Latin, the original sounds are represented in the two languages by closely related letters which regularly correspond: as,—

	2110210111	
t	TH:	tū, thou; trēs, three; tenuis, thin.
đ	T:	duo, two; dens, tooth; sedeo, sit.
p	F:	pater, father; pullus, foal; paucī, few.

LATIN.

PMCI ISH

Sounds of the Letters.

NOTE. — The pronunciation of Latin is different in different countries. In America, it usually follows what may be called the *Roman* (or *Phonetic*) method.

16. By the Roman method, every letter has always the same sound.

Note. — A long vowel in our enunciation almost necessarily acquires a slightly different quality from a short one, as in *boot* and *foot*, *machine* and *holiest*. See also be below.

Vowels:

ā as in father;

ă as in idea.

ē as eh? (prolonged); they;

ě as eh? (clipped).
i as in holiest.

i as in machine;
o as in holy;

ŏ as in *obey*.

o as in noise;

ŭ as m ovey. ŭ as oo in foot.

ū as oo in boot; **v** between u and i (German ü).

DIPHTHONGS:

ae like ay; oe like oy; au like ow in now.

ei as in eight; eu as eh'oo; ui as oo'ee.

c and g are always hard, as in come, get.

s is always sharp, as in sea, lips.

i cons. is like y in young; v (cons. u), like w in wing; qu as in English.

CONSONANTS, as in English, except that:

bs is like ϕs ; ch like k; ph like f.

n before s or f was combined with the preceding vowel somewhat as French nasal n, making the vowel long.

z as *dz* in *adze*.

th as in rathole, later as in thin.

When two consonants come together (as in con-dō, pos-terī), or a consonant is doubled (as in an-nus, ūl-lus, mīt-tō), care should be taken to pronounce both letters distinctly.

17. Roman names in English (as Julius Cæsar), scientific terms, titles of books, and familiar quotations (as e pluribus unum; viva voce; vice versa; veni, vidi, vici, etc.) should be pronounced by the English method. In this the letters have the same sounds as in English.

Quantity and Accent.

- 18. The Accent in Latin depends on the Quantity (or length) of the last syllable but one. A long *vowel* makes a long *syllable*. A short *vowel* may make a long *syllable* if obstructed by consonants. The following are simple rules for quantity.
 - a. A vowel before another vowel or h is short: as in via, nihil.
- b. A diphthong is long: as in **aedēs**, toedus. So, also, a vowel derived from a diphthong: as, exclūdo (ex-claudo).
 - c. A vowel formed by contraction is long: as, nil (nihil).
- d. A syllable in which a vowel is followed by two consonants (except a mute with 1 or r), or a double consonant (x, z) is long by Position; as in pingō, saxum, Mezentius. Before nf and ns, gn and gm, and i consonant the vowel itself becomes long by nature: as in inferō, praesēns, māgnus, āgmen, hūius.
- e. A syllable in which a short vowel is followed by a mute with 1 or r is common; i.e. it may be long in verse: as in alacris, multiplex.
- f. A vowel before nd, nt is regularly short by nature: as, amant, amandus from amare.
- 19. The accent in words of more than one syllable is on the last syllable but one (Penult), or the last but two (Antepenult).
- a. Words of two syllables are always accented on the first syllable: Rō'ma, ve'hō, i'pse.
- b. Words of more than two syllables are accented on the Penult, if that is long: as, amī'cus, praesen'tis; if it is short or common, on the Antepenult: as, do'mīnus, a'lăcris, la'těbrae, conti'nuo, praete'rītum, dissociā'bilis.

Note. — In words of more than four syllables a secondary accent usually arises at a convenient distance from the main accent: as, nāvigā"-tiō'nibus, pecū"liā'ria.

c. When an Enclitic is joined to a word, the accent falls on the syllable next before the enclitic, whether long or short: as, děă'que, ămārě've, tĭbi'ne, ită'que (and...so), as distinguished from i'tăque (therefore).

d. EXCEPTION: Certain apparent compounds of facio retain the accent of the simple verb: as, benefă'cit, calefă'cit (see § 169. a). (These are not true compounds, but phrases.)

2. WORDS AND THEIR FORMS.

INFLECTION.

20. Latin is an inflected language: i.e. changes are made in the forms of words to show their grammatical relations.

Such changes sometimes take place in the body of a word, or at the beginning, but oftener in the termination: as, vox, a voice; vocis, of a voice; tangit, he touches; tetigit, he touched.

Root and Stem.

- 21. The Stem is the body of a word, of which the terminations are changed.
- 22. A Root is the shortest and simplest form that can express the main idea of a word. It is common also to other words either in the same or kindred languages.¹

Thus the root of the stem reg- (in rex) is REG, which does not mean to rule, or I rule, or ruling, but merely expresses vaguely the idea of directing, and cannot be used as a part of speech without added terminations.

- 28. The Stem is sometimes the same as the root: as in duc-is, of a leader; ter-t, he bears; but it is more frequently formed from the root,—
- 1. By changing or lengthening its vowel: as in scob-s, sawdust (SCAB, shave); reg-is, of a king (REG, direct); voc-is, of a voice (voc, call).
- 2. By the addition of a simple suffix (originally another root): as in fug-a, flight (FUG + a); fugi-s, you fly (FUG + yo); pangō, I fasten (PAG + no).
- ¹ For example, the root STA is found in the Greek lστημ, Latin sistere and stäre, German stehen, and English stand.

- 3. By two or more of these methods: as in $\overline{\mathbf{duc}}$ -it, he leads (DUC + 0); tollo, I raise (TUL + y0).
- 4. By derivation and composition, following the laws of development peculiar to the language. (See §§ 158 ff.)
- 24. Inflectional terminations are variously modified by combination with the final vowel or consonant of the Stem, leading to the various forms of Declension and Conjugation (see § 32).

The Parts of Speech.

- 25. Words are divided into nine Parts of Speech: Nouns, Adjectives, Pronouns, Verbs, Participles, Adverbs, Prepositions, Conjunctions, and Interjections. These are more fully treated in the Introduction, pp. 1 and 2.
- 26. Nouns, Adjectives, Pronouns, and Participles have inflections of *declension*, to show gender, number, and case. Verbs have inflections of *conjugation*, to show voice, mood, tense, number, and person.
- NOTE. Adjectives are often said to have inflections of *comparison* to indicate degree. These inflections are, however, properly stem-formations made by derivation (cf. § 89).
- 27. Parts of speech which are not inflected are called **Particles**: such are Adverbs, Prepositions, Conjunctions, and Interjections.

Gender.

- 28. The genders distinguished in Latin are three: Masculine, Feminine, and Neuter.
- a. The gender of Latin nouns is either natural or grammatical. Natural gender is distinction as to the sex of the object denoted: as, puer, boy; puella, girl; donum, gift.
- b. Grammatical gender is a formal distinction as to sex where no actual sex exists in the object. It shows itself only in the form of the adjective joined with the noun: as, lapis māgnus (M.), a great stone; manus mea (F.), my hand.

Note. — A few neuter nouns are used to designate persons as belonging to a class: as, mancipium tuum, your slave.

Names of *classes* or *bodies* of persons may be of any gender: as, exercitus (M.), aciës (F.), and agmen (N.), army; operae (F. pl.), workmen; copiae (F. pl.), troops.

- 29. a. Names of Male beings, Rivers, Winds, Months, and Mountains, are masculine.
- b. Names of Female beings, Cities, Countries, Plants, Trees, and Gems, of many Animals (especially Birds), and of most abstract Qualities, are feminine.

To each of these there are some exceptions.

c. Indeclinable nouns, infinitives, words, terms or phrases used as nouns, or quoted merely for their form, are neuter: as,—

fas, right; nihil, nothing; gummī, gum; scīre tuum, your knowledge (to know).

- **80.** Many nouns may be either masculine or feminine, according to the sex of the object. These are said to be of Common Gender: as, exsul, exile; bos, ox or cow.
- a. If a noun signifying a thing without life may be either masculine or feminine, as, dies, day; finis, end, it is sometimes said to be of Doubtful Gender.
- b. Several names of animals have a grammatical gender, independent of sex. These are called Epicene. Thus lepus, hare, is always masculine, and vulpēs, fox, is always feminine.

Number and Case.

- 81. Nouns, Pronouns, Adjectives, and Participles have two Numbers, singular and plural; and six Cases, nominative, genitive, dative, accusative, vocative, ablative.
 - a. The Nominative is the case of the Subject of a sentence.
- b. The Genitive may generally be translated by the English Possessive, or by the Objective with the preposition of.
- c. The Dative is the case of the Indirect Object (§ 177). It may usually be translated by the Objective with the preposition to or for; but sometimes by the Objective without a preposition.
- d. The Accusative is the case of the Direct Object of a verb (Intr. § 15, § 177). It is used also with many Prepositions.
 - e. The Vocative is the case of Direct Address.
- f. The Ablative may usually be translated by the Objective with from, by, with, in, or at. It is also often used with prepositions.

- g. All the cases, except the nominative and vocative, may be used as object-cases; and are sometimes called Oblique Cases.
- h. In names of towns and a few other words appear traces of another case (the Locative), denoting the place where.

3. DECLENSION OF NOUNS.

82. Nouns are inflected in five Declensions, distinguished by the case-ending of the Genitive Singular, and by the final letter (*characteristic*) of the Stem.

DECL.	I.	Gen. Sing.	ae	Characteristic	ă	(anciently ā)
"	2.	"	ī	"	ŏ	
44	3.	"	ĭs	"	ĭ	or a Consonant
"	4.	"	ūs	(uis) "	ŭ	
"	5.	"	ēī	"	ē	

- a. The Stem of a noun may be found, if a consonant-stem, by omitting the case-ending; if a vowel-stem, by substituting for the case-ending the characteristic vowel.
- b. The Nominative of most masculine and feminine nouns (except in the first declension) is formed from the stem by adding s. But many end in o, or in the liquids, 1, n, r.

88. The following are general Rules of Declension:

- a. The Vocative is always the same as the Nominative, except in the singular of nouns in us of the second declension.
- b. In neuters the Nominative and Accusative are always alike, and in the plural end in ă.
- c. The Accusative singular of all masculines and feminines ends in m; the Accusative plural in s.
- d. In the last three declensions (and in a few cases in the others) the Dative singular ends in \bar{i} .
 - e. The Dative and Ablative plural are always alike.
 - f. The Genitive plural always ends in um.
- g. Final i, o, u of inflection are always long; final a is short, except in the Ablative singular of the first declension; final e is long in the first and fifth declensions, short in the second and third.

§§ 34-36.]

FIRST DECLENSION.

15

34. The Case-endings of the several declensions are the following, rare forms being given in parenthesis, Greek forms in italics:—

_	•		•	
DECL. I.	II.	III.	IV.	v.
Sing.				
N. ă, ē, ās, ēs,	us, um, er, os, on, eus	8 (or modified stem)	us, ū	ēs
G. ae (āi) <i>ēs</i>	$ar{\mathbf{i}}$ ($ar{\mathbf{i}}\mathbf{u}\mathbf{s}$) $ar{o}$, $ar{u}$, ei	ĭs, yos, ŏs	ūs (uis)	ēi (ē)
D. ae (ai)	ō (ī) ei, eō	ī (ž, rare)	ui (ū)	ēi (ē)
A. am, ān, ēn	um, on, ea	em (im) in, yn, ă	um, ū	em
v. ă , <i>ē</i> , <i>ā</i>	ĕ (ī) er, eu	(as nom.) ž, y	us, ū	ēs
A. ā, ē	ō, <i>eō</i>	e (ī), ī, <i>yē</i>	ū	ē
Plur.				
n.v. ae	ī, ă	ēs, a, ia, <i>ĕs</i>	ūs, ua	ēs
G. ārum (ūm)	$\bar{\mathbf{o}}$ rum ($\bar{\mathbf{u}}$ m, $\bar{\mathbf{o}}$ m) \bar{o} n	um, ium, <i>eōn</i>	uum	ērum
D.A. is (ābus)	īs (ōbus	ĭbus	ĭbus (ŭbus)	ēbus
A. ās	Ōs	ēs (īs), a, ia, <i>ăs</i>	ūs, ua	ēs

FIRST DECLENSION.

35. The Stem of nouns of the First Declension ends in a (originally a), and except in Greek nouns nominative is like the stem.

Nouns of the First Declension are thus declined:—

			R.

PLURAL.

Nom. stella, a (or the) star. stellae, stars. . GEN. stellae, of a star. stellarum, of stars. stellis, to (or for) stars. DAT. stellae, to (or for) a star.

stellas, stars.

Acc. stellam, a star. Voc. stella, thou star! stellae, ye stars!

stellis, with, from, etc., stars. stella, with, from, etc., a star.

GENDER. — Nouns of the first declension are Feminine.

EXCEPTIONS: Nouns masculine from their meaning: as, nauta, sailor. So a few family or personal names: as, Murena, Scaevola.

- **36.** CASE-FORMS. a. The Genitive singular anciently ended in -āi, which is occasionally found: as, aulāi.
- b. An old genitive in -as is preserved in the word familias, used in the combinations pater (mater, filius, filia) familias, father, etc., of a family (plur. patrēs familiās or familiārum).

us en m

- c. The Locative form (§ 31. h) for the singular ends in -ae; for the plural in -is: as, Romae, at Rome; Athens.
- d. The Genitive plural is sometimes found in -um instead of -um, especially in compounds with cola and gena: as, caelicolum, of the celestials; Troiugenum, of the sons of Troy; Aeneadum, of the sons of Eneas; so amphora and drachma.
- e. The Dative and Ablative plural of dea, goddess, filia, daughter, end in an older form -abus.

Greek Nouns.

87. Many nouns of the first declension borrowed from the Greek are entirely Latinized, but many retain traces of their Greek forms in various degrees.

court (F.).	Electra (F.).	a synopsis (F.).	the art of music (F.).
aula	Ēlectră (ā)	epitomē	mūsica (ē)
aul ae	Electrae	epitom ēs	mūsic ae (ēs)
aulae	Ēlec trae	epitom ae	mūsic ae
aul am	Ēlectram (ān)	epitom ë n	mūsic am (ēn)
and	-Ēlectra	epitomē	mūsica (ē)
aulā	Ēlectr ā	epitom ē	mūsicā (ē)
	aulae aulae aulae aulam	aulae Electrae aulae Electrae aulam Electram (ān) aula Electra	aulae Electrae epitomēs aulae Electrae epitomae aulam Electram (ān) epitomēn Electra epitomēn epitomēn

Andromache (F.). Eneas (M.). Leonidas (M.). a Persian (M.). Nom. Andromache (a) Aenēās Leonidas Perses (a) GEN. Andromaches (ae) Aenē**ae** Leonidae Persae DAT. Andromachae Leōnidae Persae Acc. Andromachen (am) Aenean (am) Leonidam Pers**ēn** (am) Voc. Andromache (a) - Acnea (a) - Leenide (a) Persa ABL. Andromache (a) Leōnidā Aenē**ā** Persē (ā)

	Anchises (M.).	son of Eneas (M.).	comet (M.).
Nom.	Anchises	Aeneadēs (ă)	comētēs (a)
GEN.	Anchīsae	, Aeneadae	comēt ae
DAT.	Anchīs ae	∖∕ Aeneadae	comētae
Acc.	Anchīs ēn (am)	Aenead ēn	comēt ēn (am)
Voc.	Anchisē (ā, ă)	Aeneadē (ă)	comētă
ABL.	Anchīs ē (ā)	Aenead ē (ā)	comētā (ē)

a. Many Greek nouns vary between the first, the second, and the third declensions: as, **Boōtae** (gen. of **Boōtēs**, -is), **Thūcydidās** (acc. plur. of **Thūcydidēs**, -is). See § 43. a and § 63.

b. Greek forms are found only in the singular; the plural is regular: as, comētae, -ārum, etc.

SECOND DECLENSION.

olus

ds excep

in heute

none

g acc

...

Clus

88. The Stem of nouns of the Second Declension ends in ŏ (as of vir, virŏ-; servos (-us), servŏ-; dominus, dominŏ-). The nominative is formed from the stem by adding s in masculines and feminines, m in neuters, the ŏ being weakened to ŭ. But the ending -quo makes -cus (not quus).

In most nouns whose stem ends in rŏ- the s is not added, but o is lost, and e intrudes before r, if not already present (cf. chamber from Fr. chambre): as, ager, stem agrŏ-, Greek ἀγρός.

Nouns of the Second Declension are thus declined: -

<i>boy</i> (M.).	•	` '	war (N.).
puero-	agro-	viro-	bello-
puer	ager	vi r	bellum
pueri	agrī	vir ī	belli
puer ō	agr ō	vir ō	bell ö
) puerum	agrum	virum	bell um
puer	ager	_vir	-bellum
puer ō	agr ō	vir ō	bell ō
puer i	agr i	virī	bella
puer ōrum	agr ōrum	vir ōrum	bell örum
pueris	agr is	vir is	bell ī s
puer ōs	agr ōs	vir ōs	bella
pueri	_agri	_viri	-bell a
puer īs	agr is	vir is	bell is
	puero- puerī puerō puero puero puerō puerō puerō puerō puerōs puerōs	puero agro- pueri agri puero agro puero agro puerum agrum puer agro puero agro pueri agri puero agro pueri agri puero agri puero agri puero agris pueros agros pueri agros pueri agris pueros agros	puero ager viropueri agrī virī puero agrī viropuero agro viropuerum agrum virum puero agro viropuero agro viropuero agro viropuero agro viropuero agro viropuerorum agrorum virorum pueros agros viros

Note. — Stems in -quo, like equo- have ecus (equos), equi, equo, ecum (equom), eque. The rest is regular.

- 89. Gender. Nouns ending in us (os), er, ir, are Masculine; those ending in um (on) are Neuter.
- a. Names of towns in us (os) are Feminine: as, Corinthus. Also many names of plants and gems, and some others.

- b. The following in us are Neuter; their accusative is the same as the nominative: pelagus (nom. acc. plur. pelage), sea; virus, poison; vulgus (rarely M.), the crowd; so cete, sea-monsters (nom. plur. without singular).
- 40. CASE-FORMS.—a. The Locative form of this declension ends for the singular in i: as, humi, on the ground; Corinthi, at Corinth; for the plural, in is: as, Philippis, at Philippi.
 - b. The genitive of nouns in tus or tum ends in a single i: as, fili, of a son; but the accent of the nominative is retained: as, ingë'ni, of genius.¹ The same contraction occurs in the genitive singular and the dative and ablative plural of nouns in -āius and -ōius: as, Grāis, for the Greeks; Pompēi, of Pompey.
- c. Proper names in -ius lose e in the vocative, retaining the accent of the nominative: as, Vergili; also, filius, son; genius, divine guardian; as, audī, mī fili, hear, my son.
 - d. Greek names in -ius have the vocative -ie. Adjectives in -ius form the vocative in -ie, and some of these are occasionally used as nouns: as, Lacedaemonie, O Spartan!
 - e. The genitive plural often has $\overline{\mathbf{u}}\mathbf{m}$ or (after \mathbf{v}) $\overline{\mathbf{o}}\mathbf{m}$ (cf. § 7) for $\overline{\mathbf{o}}\mathbf{r}\mathbf{u}\mathbf{m}$, especially in the poets: as, $\overline{\mathbf{d}}\overline{\mathbf{e}}\overline{\mathbf{u}}\mathbf{m}$, $\overline{\mathbf{u}}\mathbf{v}\overline{\mathbf{o}}\mathbf{m}$, of the Gods, $\overline{\mathbf{v}}\mathbf{i}\mathbf{v}\overline{\mathbf{u}}\mathbf{m}$, of men. Also in compounds of $\overline{\mathbf{v}}\mathbf{i}\mathbf{r}$, and in many words of money, measure, and weight: as, $\overline{\mathbf{S}}\overline{\mathbf{e}}\mathbf{v}\mathbf{i}\overline{\mathbf{u}}\mathbf{m}$, of the Seviri, nummum, of coins, $\overline{\mathbf{u}}\overline{\mathbf{g}}\mathbf{e}\overline{\mathbf{u}}\mathbf{m}$, of acres.
 - f. Deus, god, has vocative deus; plural: nominative and vocative deī or dī (for diī); genitive deōrum, deūm; dative and ablative deīs or dīs (for dīs). For the genitive plur. dīvūm or dīvōm (from dīvus, divine) is often used.
 - 41. The following stems in ero-, in which e belongs to the stem, retain the e throughout:—

adulter, adulterer; gener, son-in-law; puer, boy; socer, father-in-law; vesper, evening.

Also, compounds in fer and ger (stem fero-, gero-): as, lucifer, morning star; armiger, squire.

- a. Some of these have an old nominative in -erus: as, socerus. So vocative puere, a boy, as from puerus (regularly puer).
- ¹ The genitive in ii occurs twice in Virgil, and constantly in Ovid, but was unknown to Cicero. The first i was probably retained in sound as y.

b. Vir, man, has gen, viri; the adjective satur, sated, has satur; yesper, evening, has abl. vespere (loc. vesperi, in the evening).

c. Liber (a name of Bacchus) has gen. Liberi; so, too, the adjective liber, free, of which liberi, children, is the plural (§ 82. b).

42. The following not having e in the stem insert it in the nominative and vocative singular. (Cf. § 10. d.)

```
ager, field, st. agro; coluber, snake; magister, master;
aper, boar; conger, sea-eel; minister, servant;
arbiter, judge; culter, knife; oleaster, wild-olive;
auster, south wind; taber, smith; onager (-grus), wild-ass;
cancer, crab; then, beaver; scomber (-brus), mackerel.
caper, goat; liber, book;
```

[N.B. — For the corresponding forms of Adjectives, see § 82.]

48. Greek nouns retain many original forms and are declined as follows in the Singular, the Plural being regular:—

fable (M.). mock-sun(N.). Delos (F.). Athos (M.). Orpheus (M.).

•	` ,	` `		` ,	- \ /
	mÿthos		Dēlos	Athōs (ō) Athō (i)	Orpheus
GEN.	mythi	parēli ī	Dēli 🔪	Atho (i)	Orphei (eos)
	mÿth ō		Dēl ō	Ath ō	Orphei
Acc.	m <u>ython</u>	parēli on	Dēlon (um	Athon (um)	Orphe a
Voc.	myth e	parēlion	Dēl e	Ath ōs	Orphe u
ABL.	mytho	parēli ō	Dēl ō	Ath ō	Orphe ō

a. Many names in -ēs belonging to the third declension have also a genitive in -ī: as, Thūcydidēs, Thūcydidī (see §§ 37. b and 52).

b. Several names in -er have also a nom. in -us: as, Teucer or Teucrus. The name Panthus has the vocative Panthu (§ 63. i).

c. The genitive plural of certain titles of books takes the Greek termination -on: as, Georgicon, of the Georgics.

THIRD DECLENSION.

Nouns of the Third Declension are best classed according to their stems, as ending (1) in a Mute, (2) in a Liquid (1, n, r), (3) in a Vowel (i).

A few whose tems end in u, formerly long (grus, sus), are treated as consonant-stems.

 $\mathcal{D}\mathsf{d} : (-0, -0)$

z. Mute-Stems.

44. Masculine and Feminine nouns, whose stem ends in a Mute, form the nominative by adding -s. If the mute is a *lingual* (t, d), it is suppressed before -s; if it is a palatal (c, g), it unites with -s, forming -x: as, —

op-is, Ops, help; custod-is, custos, guardian; reg-is, rex, king.1

Neuters have for the nominative the simple stem (for some modifications, see § 45):—

capit-is, caput, head; poemat-is, poema, poem.

45. The vowel before the final consonant of the stem is often modified: as, —

adip-is, adeps; particip-is, particeps; aucup-is, auceps; hospit-is, hospes; capit-is, caput; cord-is, cor; poēmat-is, poēma; apic-is, apex; indic-is, index; but, cornic-is, cornix.

46. Nouns of this class are declined as follows:—

Sing. help (F.). king (M.). guide (C.). soldier (M.). head (N.). STEM rēgducmīlitcapit-0D-Nom. [ago] rēx dux miles caput GEN. op**is** rēg**is** ducis mīlit**is** capitis DAT. opi rēgi duci mīliti capiti ducem mīlitem Acc. opem rēg**em** caput Voc. dux mīles орв rēx caput ABL. duce mīlite capite ope rēg**e** Plur. wealth Non. op**ēs** ducēs rēg**ēs** mīlitēs capita GEN. opum ducum mīlitum capitum rēgum DAT. opibus duc**ibus** mīlit**ibus** capitibus rēgibus Acc. mīlitēs op**ēs** rēg**ēs** ducēs capita Voc. opēs rēg**ēs** ducēs mīlitēs capita opibus mīlitibus ARL. rēgibus ducibus capitibus

¹ In these the genitive is given first to show the stem as it is shown in vocabularies.

47. In like manner are declined —

prīnceps, -ipis (c.), chief; ariēs, -etis (m.), ram; lapis, -idis (m.), stone; iūdex, -icis (m.), judge; custos, -odis (c.), guard; cornīx, -icis (f.), raven; comes, -itis (c.), companion; poēma, -atis (n.), poem (§ 47. b).

- a. Many apparent mute-stems, having the genitive plural in -ium, are for convenience classed with i-stems (§ 54).
- b. Greek neuters (as poēma), with nominative singular in -a, frequently end in the dative and ablative plural in -īs, and in the genitive plural rarely in -ōrum.
- c. A few apparent i-stems belong here: canis, or canes, gen. canis (stem orig. can-), dog (cf. § 54).

77 2. Liquid-Stems.

48. In nouns whose stem ends in a Liquid (1, n, r), the nominative is the same as the (modified) stem, as follows:—

As leon-is, leo, lion; legion-is, legio, legion; virgin-is virgo, maiden; homin-is, homo, man; turbin-is, turbo, whirlpool; Apollin-is, Apollo; carn-is, caro, flesh (see § 61); Anion-is, Anio; cornicin-is, cornicen (M.), horn-blower; carmin-is, carmen (N.), song; patr-is, pater, father; oper-is (originally opesis), opus, work; ciner-is, cinis, ashes.

NOTE. — A few Masculine and Feminine stems have a nom. in -s as well as -r: as, honor-is, honos (or honor); arbor-is, arbos (or arbor), tree.

Stems in Il-, IT- (N.) lose one of their liquids in the nominative: as, farr-is, far, grain; fell-is, fel, gall.

49. Nouns of this class are declined as follows:

Sing. consul (M.).	lion (M.).	maiden (F.).	name (N.).
STEM consul-	leōn-	virgin-	nomin-
Noм. consul	leō	virgō	nōmen
Gen. consulis	leōn is	virgin is	nōmin is
DAT. consuli	leōn ī	virgin i	nōmin ī
Acc. consulem	leōn em .	virgin em	nōmen
Voc. consul	leō	virgō	nōmen
ABL. consule	leōn e	virgin e	nōmin e

That is, as appears from the nominative. No fast line can be drawn between mute-stems and i-stems, as they were confused in both ways.

Plur.			
Noм. cõnsul ēs	leõn ës	virgin ēs	nōmin a
Gen. consul um	leōn um	virgin um	nōmin um
Dat. consulibus	leōn ibus	virgin ibus	nōmin ibus
Acc. consules	leōn ēs	virgin ēs	nōmin a
Voc. consules	leõn ës	virgin ēs	nōmin a
ABL. consulibus	leõn ibus	virgin ibus	nōmin ibus
0			
Sing. body (N.).	race (N.).	ivory (N.).	plain (n.).
STEM COTPOT-, orig08-	gener-, origes-	ebor-	acquor-
Nom. corpus	genus	•ebur	aequor
GEN. corporis	gener is	ebor is	aequor is
DAT. corpori	generī	eborī	a e quor i
Acc. corpus	genus	ebur	aequor
Voc. corpus	genus	ebur	aequor
ABL. corpore	gener e	ebor e	aequor e
Plur.			
Noм. corpora	genera	ebor a	aequora
GEN. corporum	generum	ebor um	aequorum
DAT. corporibus	gener ibus	ebori bus	aequoribus
Acc. corpora	genera	ebora	aequora
Voc. corpora	gener a	ebor a	aequora
ABL. corporibus	gener ibus	ebor ibus	aequoribus

50. In like manner are declined —

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pater, patris (M.), father; arbor (-\bar{0}s), -oris (F.), tree; furfur, -uris (M.), bran; honor (-\bar{0}s), -\bar{0}ris (M.), honor; opus, -eris (N.), work; pignus, -eris or -oris, pledge.
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The following real or apparent liquid-stems have the genitive plural in -ium, and are for convenience classed with the i-stems: imber, linter, uter, venter; fur, glis, lar, mas, mus [†rēn]; also virēs (pl. from vis: see § 61).

3. Vowel-Stems.

51. Vowel-stems of the Third Declension end in i- (as turris, stem turri-; mare, stem mari-). The nominative, except in neuters, is formed by adding -s to the stem.

- a. Thirty-five nouns change i and in the nominative, and many others vary between i and i: as, cives, or civis, citizen: canes or canis (treated as i-stem), dog.
- b. The nominative of a few stems in bri- and tri- does not add -a, but loses i, inserting e before r. These are imber, linter, uter, venter (§ 54, and cf. ager).
- c. The nominative of neuters is the same as the stem, with the change of i to e (as in mare). But when e is preceded by all or ar, the e is lost, as in animal (§ 53. e).
 - 52. Nouns of this class are declined as follows:

Sing. t	hirst(F.)	. tower (F.).	cloud (F.).	seat (N.).	animal(N.).
STEM	siti-	turri-	nūbi-	sedīli-	animāli-
Nom.	sitis	turris	nūbes	sedile	animal
GEN.	sit is	tur ris	nūb is .	sedīl is	- animāl is
Dat.	sitī	turrī	nūb j	sedīl ī	animāl ī
Acc.	sit im	turrem (im)	nūb em	sedīl e	animal
Voc.	sit is	turr is	nūb ēs	sedīl e	animal
ABL.	sitī	turre (i)	nūb e	sedīl ī	animāl i
Plur.					
Nom.		turr ës	nūb ēs	sedīlia	animāl ia
GEN.		turrium	nūb ium	sedīl ium	a nimāl ium
Dat.		turribus	nūb ibus	sedī libus	animāl ibus
Acc.		turrīs (ēs)	nūb is (ēs)	sedīl ia	animāl ia
Voc.		turrēs	nūb ēs	sedīl ia	animāl ia
ABL.		turribus	nūb ibus	sedīl ibus	animāl ibus

58. Nouns of this class include —

- a. Nouns in -6s or -is (mostly feminine) or e (neuter) having the same number of syllables in the nominative and genitive (parisyllabic).
 - b. Those in -er, except pater, mater, frater, accipiter.
- c. Neuters in -al, -ar (originally neuters of adjectives in ālis, -āris) which have lost a final -e.
- 54. Many nouns with apparently consonant-stems were originally i-stems or confused with them.¹ These are—
- ¹ The i-declension was confused even to the Romans, nor was it stable at all periods of the language, early Latin having i-forms which later disappeared. Nouns tended to lose the i-forms, Adjectives, to gain them.

- 1. Monosyllables with stem apparently ending in two consonants: as, urbs, mons (gen. montis), now (gen. noctis), arx; together with imber, linter, uter, venter (§ 51. b).
- 2. Stems in tāt- (as cīvitās, -ātis),¹ or in d or t preceded by a consonant (including participles used as nouns); also the monosyllables dōs, [† faux], fūr, glīs, līs, mās, mūs, nix, [† rēn], strix, vīs, scrobs (cf. § 50).
- 3. Nouns denoting birth or abode, having stems in **āt-**, **īt-**, originally adjectives: as, **Arpīnās**, -**ātis** (§ 164. c), with **penātēs** and **optimātēs** (§ 76. 2).

They are thus declined:—

Sing.	city (F.).	night (F.).	age (F.).	mouse(M.).	shower(M.).
STEM	urbi-	nocti-	aetāti-	mūri-	imbri-
Nom.	urbs	nox	aetās	mūs	imber
GEN.	urb is	noctis	aetāti s	mū ris	imbr is
Dat.	urb ī	nocti	aetāt ī	mūŗ i	imbr i
Acc.	urb em	noctem	aetāt em	mūr em	imbr em
Voc.	urb s	no≖	aetā s	mūs	imber
ABL.	urb e	nocte	aetāt e	mūr e	imbr e (i)
Plur.					
Nom.	urb ēs	noct ēs	aetāt ēs	mūr ēs	imbr ēs
GEN.	urb ium	noc tium	aetātum (ium)	mūr ium	imbr ium
DAT.	urb ibus	noct ibus	aetāt ibus	mūr ibus	imb ribus
Acc.	urbīs (ēs)	noctīs (ēs)	aetāt is (ēs)	mūr is (ēs)	imbrīs (ēs)
Voc.	urb ēs	noct ēs	aetāt ēs	mūr ēs	imbr ēs
ABL.	urb ibus	noctibus	aetāt ibus	mūr ibus	imbr ibus

NOTE.—The declension of these nouns in the singular is exactly like that of consonant-stems, and in the plural like that of vowel-stems.

- 55. Vowel-stems (real or confused) show the i of the stem in the following forms:—
- a. They almost all have the genitive plural in -ium, but some monosyllables lack it entirely. Exceptions are canis and iuvenis (originally consonant-stems), patrials in -ās, ātis and īs, ītis, and a few others occasionally for metrical reasons, or from confusion; as, Arpīnās, Arpīnātum; Samnītum; clādēs, clādum.

¹ These, however, more commonly have the genitive plural in -um.

will write with when , wrbe, wrbes wrbuin wrbebiss VOWEL-STEMS. wrbes 25

§§ 56, 57.]

b. All neuters have the nominative and accusative plural in -ia.

- c. The accusative plural (M. or F.) is regularly -is.
- d. The accusative singular (M. or F.) of a few ends in -im (§ 56).
- e. The ablative singular of all neuters, and of many masculines and feminines, ends in -I (see § 57).
- 56. The regular case-ending of the accusative singular of i-stems (M. or F.) would be -im: as, sitis, sitim (cf. stella, -am; servos, -om); but in most nouns this is changed to -em (following the consonant declension).
 - a. The accusative in -im is found exclusively --
 - 1. In Greek nouns and names of rivers.
 - 2. In būris, cucumis, rāvis, sitis, tussis, vis.
 - 3. In adverbs in -tim (being accusatives of nouns in -tis), as partim; and in amussim.
- b. The accusative in -im is found sometimes in febris, puppis, restis, turris, securis, sementis, and rarely in many other words.
- 57. The regular ablative singular of i-stems would end in -i: as, sitis, siti; but in most nouns this is changed to -e.
 - a. The ablative in -i is found exclusively
 - 1. In nouns having the accusative in -im (§ 56); also, securis.
 - 2. In aequālis, annālis, aquālis, consulāris, gentīlis, molāris, primipilāris, tribūlis used as nouns.
 - 3. In neuters (whose nominative ends in -e, -al, -ar): except baccar, iubar, and sometimes (in verse) mare, rete.
 - b. The ablative in -i is found sometimes
 - I. In avis, clāvis, febris, finis, īgnis, imber, nāvis, ovis, pelvis, puppis, sementis, strigilis, turris.
 - 2. In affinis, bipennis, canālis, familiāris, nātālis, rīvālis, sapiēns, tridēns, trirēmis, vocālis used as nouns.
- c. The ablative of fames is always fame. The defective mane has sometimes locative mani used as ablative.
- d. Most names of towns in -e, as Praeneste, Tergeste, and Soracte, a mountain, have the ablative in -e. Caere has Caerete.
 - e. For canis, see § 47. c.

¹ Always in the formula aquā et ignī interdicī (§ 243. a).

- 58. The regular Nominative plural of i-stems would end in -is, but this is very rarely found in nouns. The regular Accusative in -is is common, but not exclusively used in any word.
- 59. The following have -um (not -ium) in the genitive plural: canis, iuvenis (originally consonant-stems); ambāgēs, mare (once only, otherwise wanting), volucris; also (sometimes) apis, caedēs, clādēs, mēnsis, sēdēs, struēs, subolēs, vātēs, and patrials in -ās, -ātis; -īs, -ītis; as, Arpīnās, Arpīnātum; Samnīs, Samnītum.

4. Irregular Nouns.

- 60. In many nouns the stem is irregularly modified in the nominative or other cases. Thus,—
- a. The vowel-stems grū-, sū- add s in the nominative, and are inflected like mute-stems: grūs has also a nominative gruis; sūs has both suibus and subus in the dative and ablative plural.
- b. In the stem bov- (bou-) the diphthong ou becomes ō in the nominative (bōs, bŏvis). In nāv- (nau-) an i is added (nāvis, -is).
 In Iŏv- (= Zεύs) the diphthong (ou) becomes ū in Iū-piter (for -păter), gen. Iŏvis, etc.
- c. In iter, itineris (N.), iecur, iecinoris (N.), supellex, supellectilis (F.), the nominative is formed from a shorter stem, in senex, senis from a longer; so that these words show a mixture of two distinct forms. The shorter form is found in the genitive iecor-is.
- d. Of the many original s-stems, only vas, vasts (N.) (pl. vasa, -orum), retains its proper form in the nominative.
 - 61. Some peculiar forms are thus declined:—

Sing. ox,cow(C.).oldman(M.)flesh(F.). bone(N.). force(F.). swine(C.).

N., V.	bōs	senex	carō	OS	vis	sūs
GEN.	bŏv is	sen is	carn is	oss is	vīs (rare)	su is
Dat.	bov i	seni	carni	ossī	vī (rare)	suī
Acc.	bov em	sen em	carnem	os	vim	suem
ABL.	bov e	sene	carne	osse	vī	su e
Plur.	cattle	• •			strength	
N., A., V.	. bov ēs	sen ēs	carn ēs	ossa °	vīr ēs	su ēs
GEN.	bo um	sen um	carn ium	ossium	vīr ium	suum
D., ABL.	b ōbus	sen ibus	carn ibus	ossibus	vīr ibus	sŭ bus
	(b ūbus)					(suibus)

5. Case-Forms.

62. The LOCATIVE form ends in the singular in -i or -e: as, rūrī, in the country; Carthāginī or Carthāgine, at Carthage; in the plural in -ibus: as, Trallibus, at Tralles.

6. Greek Forms.

- 63. Many nouns originally Greek mostly proper names retain Greek forms of inflection.
- a. Stems in in- (i long): delphinus, -i (M.), has also the form delphin, -inis; Salamis, -inis (F.), has acc. Salamina.
- b. Most stems in id- (nom. -is) often have also the forms of i-stems: as, tigris, -idis (-idos) or -is; acc. -idem (-ida) or -im (-in); abl. -ide or -i. But many, including most feminine proper names, have acc. -idem (-ida), abl. -ide, not -im or -i. (These stems are irregular also in Greek.)
- c. Stems in on- sometimes retain -n in the nominative : as, Agamemnon (or Agamemno), -onis, accusative -ona.
- d. Stems in ont- form the nom. in -on: as, horizon, Xenophon; but a few are occasionally Latinized into on- (nom. -o): as, Draco, -onis.
- e. Stems in ant-, ent- have the nom. in -ās, -īs: as adamās, -antis; Simoīs, -entis. So a few in unt- (contracted from oent-) have -us: as, Trapezus, -untis. Occasionally the Latin form of nominative is also found: as, Atlāns, elephāns, as well as Atlās, elephās.
- f. Many Greek nouns have gen. -ŏs, acc. -ă; plur. nom. -ĕs, acc. -ăs: as, āēr, aethēr, crātēr, hērōs (-ōis), lampas (-ădis or -ădos), lynx (-cis or -cŏs), nāïs (-idos), Orpheus (-eos: see § 43).
- g. A few in -ys have acc. -yn, voc. -y, abl. -yë: as, chelys, -yn, -y; Capys, -yos, -yi, -yn, -y, -yë.
- h. Several feminine names in -ō have gen. sing. -ūs, all the other cases ending in -ō; they may also have regular forms: as, Dīdō, gen. Dīdōnis or Dīdūs; dat. Dīdōni or Dīdō, etc.
- i. Several Greek forms are irregularly retained in the vocative: as, Panthūs, voc. Panthū; Orpheus, Orpheu; Atlās, Atlā; Daphnis, Daphni; Periclēs, Periclē (cf. § 43).
- 64. Some of these forms are seen in the following examples:—



Sing. hero(M.).	torch(F.).	base(F.). na	iad(F.).	tiger(C.).
Stem hērō-	lampad-	basi-	naid-	tigrid-(tigri-)
N., V. hērōs	lampas	basis	nāis	tigris
Gen. hērōis	lampad os	bas eōs	nāid os	tigr is (id os)
Dat. hērōi	lampad ī	ba sī	nāid ī	tigr ī
Acc. hērōa	lampad a	bas in	nāid a	tigr in (id a)
ABL. hērō ə	lampad e	basi	nāid e	tigr ī (id e)
Plur.				
N., V. hērō ĕs	lampad ĕs	bas ēs	nāid ĕs	tigr ēs
Gen. hērōum	lampad um	bas ium(eō n	ı) nāid um	tigr ium
D., A.¹hērōibus	lampad ibus	bas ibus	nāid ibus	tigr ibus
Acc. hērō ăs	lampad ăs	bas is (els)	nāid ăs	tigr ĭs (id ăs)

PROPER NAMES.

	Atlās		Simois		
GEN.	Atlantis /	Dīdōnis (ūs) Dīdōni (ō) V Dīdōnem (ō)	Simoentis	Capy os	, Daphnid is
Dat.	Atlanti	Dīdōn ī (ō) √	Simoenti /	Capyi ,/	Daphnid ī
Acc.	Atlant a	Dīdōn em (ō)	Simoenta V	Capyn V	Daphnim (in)
		Dīdō			
ABL.	Atlante	Dīdōn e (ō)	Simoente	Capye	Daphnī

NOTE. — The regular Latin forms can be used for most of the above.

7. Rules of Gender.

- 65. The following are general Rules for the Gender of nouns of the third declension, classed according to the termination of the nominative.
 - a. Masculine endings are -ō, -or, -ōs, -er, -ĕs (gen. -ĭdis, -ĭtis).
- b. Feminine endings are -ās (gen. ātis), -ēs (gen. -is), -is, -ys, -x, -s (following a consonant); also, -dō, -gō (gen. -inis), -iō (abstract and collective), and -ūs (gen. ūdis, -ūtis).
- c. Neuter endings are -a, -e, -ī, -y; -c, -l, -t; -men (gen. -mīnis); -ar, -ur, -us (gen. -eris, -oris).

NOTE. — All these have exceptions.

66. For general Rules for the Gender of nouns of the third declension, classed according to their stems, see Allen and Greenough's larger grammar.

¹ Dative, hērōisin (once only).



67. For the Forms of Inflection of nouns of the third declension, classed according to their stems, see Allen and Greenough's larger grammar.

FOURTH DECLENSION.

`68. The Stem of nouns of the Fourth Declension ends in \overline{u} , weakened to \overline{u} , before -bus. Masculine and feminine nouns form the nominative by adding \overline{u} ; neuters have for nominative the simple stem, but with \overline{u} (long).

Nouns of the Fourth Declension are thus declined: -

Sing.	hand (F.).	lake (M.).	knee (N.).
	Stem manu-	lacu-	genu-
Nom.	manus	lacus	$\mathbf{gen}\mathbf{\overline{u}}$
GEN.	man ūs	lac ūs	gen ū (ūs)
Dat.	manui (ū)	lac ui (ū)	gen ū
Acc.	manum	lacum	gen ū
Voc.	man us	lac us	gen ū
ABL.	man ū	lac ū	gen ū
Plur.			
Nom.	man ūs	lac ūs	gen ua
GEN.	man uum	lac uum	gen uum
Dat.	man ibus	lac ubus	gen ibus
Acc.	man ūs	lac ūs	gen ua
Voc.	man ūs	lac ūs	. gen ua
ABL.	man ibus	lac ubus	genibus

- 69. GENDER.—a. Most nouns in -us are Masculine. The following are Feminine: acus, anus, colus, domus, idus (pl.), manus, nurus, porticus, quinquatrus (pl.), socrus, tribus, with a few names of plants and trees. Also, rarely, arcus, penus, specus.
 - b. The only neuters are cornū, genū, pecū, verū.
- **70.** CASE-FORMS. a. The uncontracted form -uis (sometimes -uos) is sometimes found in the genitive, as senātuos; and an old (irregular) genitive in -ī is used by some writers: as, ornātī, senātī.
 - b. The nominative plural has rarely the form -uus.
 - c. The genitive plural is sometimes contracted into -um.



- d. The following retain the regular dative and ablative plural in -ubus: artus, partus, portus, tribus, veru (but sometimes portibus, veribus); also dissyllables in -cus: as, lacus.
- e. Most names of plants, and colus, distaff, have also forms of the second declension.
- f. Domus, house, has two stems, ending in u- and o- (cf. gen. in -ī, § 70. a), and is declined as follows: 1—

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
domus	domūs
dom ūs (domi, loc.)	domuum (domorum)
domui (domō)	domibus
domu m	dom ōs (dom ūs)
$dom \overline{o} (dom \overline{u})$	domibus
	domus domūs (domi, loc.) domui (domō) domum

- g. The only locative form of the fourth declension is domui. But even this is rare, and domi is almost universally used instead.
- 71. Most nouns of the fourth declension are formed from verbstems, or roots, by means of the suffix -tus (-sus) (cf. § 163. b): as, cantus, song, CAN, cano, sing.
- a. The accusative and ablative (or dative, perhaps both) of these nouns form the Supines of verbs (\S 109. c): as, audītum, visū.
- b. Of many verbal derivatives only the ablative is used as a noun: as, tūssū (meō), by (my) command; so iniūssū, without orders. Of some only the dative: as, memorātui, dīvīsui.

FIFTH DECLENSION.

72. The Stem of nouns of the Fifth Declension ends in 5. The nominative is formed from it by adding -s.

These nouns are thus declined:—

	SING. thing (F.) PLUR.		SING. day (N	faith (F.).	
	STEM T	ē-	diē-		fidē-
Nom.	rēs	rēs	diës	di ēs	fidēs
GEN.	rĕī	rērum	diēī (diē)	di ērum	fid ĕī
Dat.	rĕī	rēbus	di ēī (di ē)	di ēbus	fid ĕī
Acc.	rem	rēs	\mathbf{diem}	di ës	$\operatorname{fid}\mathbf{em}$
Voc.	· rēs	r ēs	di ës	di ēs	fid ës
ABL.	rē	rēbus	di ē	diēbus	fid ë

¹ The forms in parenthesis, except domī (cf. § 70. g), are less common.

DEFECTIVE NOUNS.

NOTE.—The ē has been shortened in the genitive and dative singular of fidēs, spēs, rēs, but in these it is found long in early Latin.

- 73. GENDER. All nouns of this declension are feminine, except dies (usually M.), day, and meridies (M.), noon. Dies is sometimes feminine in the singular, regularly so when used of time in general: as, longa dies, a long time; constituta die, on a set day; also in the poets: as, pulchra dies, a fine day.
- 74. CASE-FORMS.—a. The Genitive singular anciently ended in -ēs (cf. -ās of first declension, § 36. b). The genitive ending -ēī was sometimes contracted into -êi, -ī, or -ē: as, dlī (Æn. i. 636), and the phrases plēbī-scītum, tribūnus plēbēi.
- b. The fifth declension is only a variety of the first, and several nouns have forms of both: as, māteria, -iēs; saevitia, -iēs.
- c. The Locative of this declension ends in -\(\bar{\ell}\). It is found in certain adverbs and expressions of time: as, hodi\(\bar{\ell}\) (for hoi-di\(\bar{\ell}\), cf. huic), to-day; perendi\(\bar{\ell}\), day after to-morrow; di\(\bar{\ell}\) qu\(\bar{\alpha}\) (old, qu\(\bar{\alpha}\) the fourth day; pridi\(\bar{\ell}\), the day before.
- d. Of nouns of the fifth declension, dies and res only are declined throughout. Most want the plural, which is found, however, in the nominative and accusative in the following: acies, effigies, eluvies, factes, glacies, series, species, spes.

DEFECTIVE NOUNS.

- 75. Some nouns are ordinarily found in the Singular number only (sīngulāria tantum). These are
 - 1. Most proper names: as Caesar, Cæsar, Gallia, Gaul.
- Names of things not counted, but reckoned in mass: as, aurum, gold; aer, air; triticum, wheat.
- 3. Abstract nouns: as, ambitio, ambition; fortitudo, courage; calor, heat.

But many of these are used in the plural in some other sense. Thus,—

a. A proper name may be applied to two or more persons or places, or even things, and so become strictly common: as, duodecim Caesarēs, the twelve Cæsars; Galliae, the two Gauls (Cis- and Transalpine); Castorēs, Castor and Pollux; Iovēs, images of Jupiter.

- b. Particular objects may be denoted: as, aera, bronze utensils, nivēs, snowflakes; or different kinds of a thing: as, āeres, airs (good and bad).
- c. The plural of abstract nouns denotes instances of the quality, or the like: as, quaedam excellentiae, some cases of superiority; calores, trigora, times of heat and cold. (See also § 79. d.)
- 76. Some nouns are commonly found only in the Plural (plūrālia tantum [cf. § 79. c]). Such are —
- 1. Many proper names: as, Athēnae, Athens, Thūriī, Philippī, Vēiī, names of towns, especially names of festivals and games: as, Olympia, the Olympic Games; Bacchānālia, feast of Bacchus; lūdī Romānī, the Roman Games.
- 2. Names of classes: as, optimātēs, the upper classes; māiorēs, ancestors; līberī, children; penātēs, household gods.
- 3. Words plural by signification: as, arma, weapons; artus, joints; divitiae, riches; scalae, stairs; valvae, folding-doors.

These often have a corresponding singular in some form or other, as noun or adjective.

- a. As noun, to denote a single object: as, Bacchānal, a spot sacred to Bacchus; optimās, an aristocrat.
 - b. As adjective: as, Cato Maior, Cato the Elder.
 - c. In another sense: as, scala, a ladder; artus, a joint.
- 77. Many nouns are defective in case forms. For lists, see Allen and Greenough's larger grammar.

VARIABLE NOUNS.

- 78. Many nouns vary either in Declension or Gender. For lists, see Allen and Greenough's larger grammar. The dictionary gives sufficient information in each case.
- 79. Many nouns have irregularities of Number either in their ordinary or occasional use.

a. Many nouns vary in meaning in the Singular and Plural: as, —

aedes, -is (F.), temple; aedes, -ium, house. aqua (F.), water; aquae, a watering-place. auxilium (N.), help; auxilia. auxiliaries. bonum (N.), a good; bona, property. carcer (N.), dungeon; carceres, barriers (of race-course). castrum (N.), fort; castra, camp. comitium (N.), place of assembly; comitia, an election (town meeting). copia (F.), plenty: copiae, troops. fides (F.), harp string; fides, lyre. finis (M.), end; fines, bounds, territories. grātia (F.), favor (rarely, thanks); grātiae, thanks (also, the Graces). impedimentum (N.), hindrance; impedimenta, baggage. littera (F.), letter (of alphabet); litterae, epistle. locus (M.), place [pl. loca (N.)]; loci, topics. lūdus (M.), sport; lūdi, public games. opera (F.), work; operae, day-laborers ("hands"). [ops] opis (F.), help (§ 46); opes, resources, wealth. pars (F.), a part; partes, part (on the stage), party. rostrum (N.), beak of a ship; röstra, speaker's platform. sales, witticisms. sal (M. or N.), salt;

- b. The singular of a noun usually denoting an individual is sometimes used collectively to denote a group: as, Poenus, the Carthaginians; miles, the soldiery; eques, the cavalry.
- c. Of many nouns the plural is usually, but not exclusively, used: as, cervicēs, the neck; Quiritēs, Romans; viscera, flesh.
- d. The poets often use the plural for the singular for metrical reasons, or from a mere fashion: as, ora (for os), the face; soeptra (for soeptrum), sceptre; silentia (for silentium), silence.

PROPER NAMES.

- 80. A Roman had regularly three names, denoting the person, the gens, and the family.
- a. Thus, in the name Marcus Tullius Cicero, we have Marcus the praenomen, or personal name; Tullius, the nomen (properly an

adjective), i.e. the name of the gens, or house, whose supposed original head was a Tullus; Cicero, the cognomen, or family name.

NOTE. — When two persons of the same family are mentioned together, the cognomen is usually in the plural: as Püblius et Servius Sullae.

- b. A fourth or fifth name was sometimes given. Thus the complete name of Scipio the Younger was Pūblius Cornēlius Scipio Āfricānus Aemiliānus: Āfricānus, from his exploits in Africa; Aemiliānus, as adopted from the Æmilian gens.
- c. Women had commonly in classical times no personal names, but were known only by the nomen of their gens. Thus, the wife of Cicero was Terentia, and his daughter Tullia. A younger daughter would have been called Tullia secunda or minor, and so on.
 - d. The commonest prænomens are thus abbreviated: -

A. Aulus.	L. Lūcius.	Q. Quintus.
App. Appius.	M. Mārcus.	Ser. Servius.
C. (G.) Gāius (Caius) (cf. § 6).	M'. Mānius.	Sex. Sextus.
Cn. (Gn.) Gnaeus (Cneius).	Mam. Mämercus.	Sp. Spurius.
D. Decimus.	N. Numerius.	T. Titus.
K. Kaesō (Caeso).	P. Pūblius.	Ti. Tiberius.

4. ADJECTIVES.

INFLECTION.

Adjectives and Participles are formed and declined like Nouns, differing only in their use. They distinguish gender by different forms in the same word, and agree with their nouns in *gender*, *number*, and *case*. They are (1) of the First and Second Declensions, or (2) of the Third Declension.

1. First and Second Declensions.

81. Adjectives of the first and second declensions (a- and o-stems) are declined in the Masculine like servus, in the Feminine like stella, and in the Neuter like bellum; as,—

bonus, good.						
	S	INGULAR.		_ · I	LURAL.	
	M.	F.	N.	M.	F.	N.
STEM	bono-	bona-	bono-			
Nom.	bonus	bonă	bonum	boni	bonae	bona
GEN.	bon i	bon ae	bonī	bon ōrum	bon ārum	bon ōrum
DAT.	bon ō	bon ae	bon ō	bon is	bon is	bon is
Acc.	bon um	bon am	bon um	bon ōs	bon ās	bon a
Voc.	bon e	bona	bon um	bon i	bon ae	bon a
ABL.	$\mathbf{bon}\overline{\mathbf{o}}$	bon ā	bon ō	bon is	bon is	bon is

Note. — Stems in quo- have nominative -cus, -qua, -cum, accusative -cum, -quam, -cum, to avoid -quu, (see § 7). Thus, —

Nom.	relicus (-quos)	reliqua	relicum (-quom)
GEN.	reli qui	reli quae	reli qui , etc.

- a. The masculine genitive singular of Adjectives in -ius ends in -ii, and the vocative in -ie; not in -i, as in Nouns (cf. § 40. b, c): as, Lacedaemonius, -ii, -ie.
- 82. Stems ending in ro- preceded by e or a consonant (also satur) form the masculine nominative-like noun-stems in ro- of the second declension (cf. puer, ager, § 38). They are thus declined:—

g. mi	ser, wretche	ed.	n	iger, black	•
STE	м misero-, а-,	0-	n	igro-, a-, o-	
miser	misera	miserum	niger	nigra	nigrum
miser ī	miserae	miser i	nigr ī	nigr ae	nig rī
miserō	miserae	miser ō	nigr ō	nigr ae	nigr ō
miser um	miser am	miser um	nigrum	nigr am	nigr um
miser	misera	miserum	niger	nig ra	nigr um
miser ō	miser ā	miser ō	nigr ō	nigr ā	nigr ō
r.					
miser ī	miser ae	misera	nigri	nigr ae	nigr a
$miser \overline{\textbf{o}rum}$	miser ārum	miser ōrum	$\operatorname{nigr} \overline{\mathbf{o}} \mathbf{rum}$	nigr ārum	$\operatorname{nigr} \overline{\mathbf{o}} \mathbf{r} \mathbf{u} \mathbf{m}$
miser is	miser is	miser īs	nigr īs	nigr īs	nigr īs
miser ōs	mise rās	miser a	nigr ōs	nigr ās	nigr a
miser ī	miserae	miser a	nigr i	nigr ae	nig ra
miser is	miser is	miser is	nigr is	nigr īs	nigr is
	miser miser miser miser miser miser miser miser miser or. miser miser or. miser orum orum orum orum orum orum orum oru	STEM misero-, a-, miser misera miserī miserae miserō miserae miserum miseram miser misera miserō miserā r. miserī miserae miserōrum miserārum miserīs miserās miserōs miserās miserās miserās miserās miserae	STEM misero-, a-, o- miser misera miserum miserī miserae miserī miserō miserae miserum miserum miseram miserum miser misera miserum miserō miserā miserō r. miserī miserae misera miserōrum miserārum miserōrum miserōs miserārum miserōrum miserīs miserās miserīs miseros miserās misera miserā miserae misera	STEM misero, a., o miserum niger miseri miserae miseri nigri misero miserae misero nigro miserum miseram miserum niger misero misera miserum niger misero misera misero nigro r. miseri miserae misera nigri miserorum miserarum misera nigro miserorum miserarum miserorum nigrorum miserorum miserarum miserorum nigrorum miseris miseris miseris nigris miseros misera nigros miseri miserae misera nigros miseri miserae misera nigros	STEM misero, a., o nigro, a., o miser misera miserum niger nigra miserī misera miserī nigrī nigrae miserō miserae miserō nigrō nigrae miserum miserum miserum nigrum nigram miser misera miserum niger nigra miserō miserā miserō nigrō nigrā r. miserī miserae misera migrī nigrae miserōrum miserārum miserārum nigrorum nigrarum miserōrum miserārum miserōrum nigrārum miserās miserās miserās nigrīs nigrās miserās miserās misera nigrōs nigrās miserā misera miserā nigrās nigrās miserā misera misera nigrōs nigrās miserā misera misera nigrōs nigrās

NOTE. — Which type is followed is shown by the dictionary.

a. Stems in ēro- (as prōcērus), with mōrlgĕrus, propĕrus, have the regular nominative masculine in -us.

83. The following o-stems with their compounds have the genitive singular in -īus (one only having -ĭus) and the dative in -ī in all genders:—

alius (N. aliud), other. totus, whole. alter, -terius, the other.

nüllus, no, none. üllus, any. neuter, -trius, neither.

sõlus, alone. ünus, one. uter, -trius, which (of two).

Of these the singular is thus declined :-

	M.	F.	N.	M.	F.	N.
Nom.	ūnus	ūna	ūnum	uter	utra	utrum
GEN.	ūn ius	ūn ius	ūn ius	utr īus	u trīus	utr īus
Dat.	ūn i	ūn i	ūn i	utr i	utrī	utrī
Acc.	ūn um	ũn am	ūn um	utr um	utr am	utr um
ABL.	ũn ō	ūn ā	ūn ö	utr ō	utrā	utr ō
Nom.	alius	alia	aliud	alter	altera	alterum
GEN.	al īus	al ius	al ius	alter ius	alter ius	alterius
DAT.	ali ī	ali ī	ali ī	alterī	alterī	alterī
Acc.	alium	aliam	ali uđ	alter um	alter am	alter um
ABL.	aliō	ali ā	ali ō	alter ō	alter ā	alter ō

- a. The plural of these words is regular, like that of bonus.
- b. The i of the genitive-ending -ius, may be short in verse.

Instead of alius, alterius is commonly used, or in the possessive sense the adjective alienus, belonging to another, another's.

In compounds sometimes both parts are declined, sometimes only the latter. Thus, alteri utri or alterutri, to one of the two.

2. Third Declension.

Adjectives of the third declension are of one, two, or three terminations.

84. Adjectives of the third declension having stems in i- — distinguished by being parisyllabic (§ 53. a) — have but one form for both masculine and feminine, with one for the neuter, and hence are called adjectives of two terminations. In the neuter the nominative ends in -e.

They are declined as follows: -

lěvis (stem levi-), light.

	SINGULAR.		PLURAL.	
	M., F.	N.	M., F.	N.
N., V.	levis	leve	levēs	levia
GEN.	lev is	lev is	lev ium	lev ium
DAT.	lev i	lev i	lev ibus	lev ibus
Acc.	lev em	lev e	lev is (ēs)	lev ia
ABL.	levī	levī	lev ibus	lev ibus

a. The following stems in ri- have a masc. nom. in -er; acer, alacer, campester, celeber, equester, paluster, pedester, puter, saluber, silvester, terrester, volucer, and are called adjectives of three terminations. So, also, celer, celeris, celere; and names of months in -ber (cf. § 51. b): as, October.

These are declined as follows : -

ācer, *keen*.

SINGULAR.			PLURAL.			
	M.	F.	N.	м.	F.	N.
N., V.	ācer	ācris	ācre	ācrēs	ācrēs	ācria
GEN.	ācr is	ācr is	ācr is	ācr ium	ācr ium	ācr ium
DAT.	ācrī	ācrī	ācrī	ācr ibus	ācr ibus	āc ribus
Acc.	ācr em	ācr em	ācr e	ācr is (ēs)	ācris (ēs)	ācr ia
ABL.	ācrī	ācrī	ācrī	ācr ibus	āc ribus	āc ribus

Note. — This formation is comparatively late, and hence, in the poets, either the masculine or the feminine form was sometimes used for both genders: as, coetus alacris (Enn.). In others, as faenebris, fünebris, illūstris, lūgubris, mediocris, muliebris, there is no separate masculine form. Thus, —

illustris, brilliant.

Stem **illüstri-**

	SINGULAR.		PLUKAL.		
	M., F.	N.	M., F.	N.	
N., V.	illüstris	illüstre	illūstrēs	illūstria	
GEN.	illūstr is	illūstr is	illūstr ium	illūstr ium	
DAT.	illūstr ī	illūstr i	illūstr ibus	illūstr ibus	
Acc.	illūstr em	illūstr e	illūstr īs (ēs)	illūstr ia	
ABL.	illūstr i	illūstr ī	illūstr ibus	illūstr ibus	

b. CASE-FORMS. — Adjectives of two and three terminations, being true i-stems, retain in the ablative singular -ī, in the neuter plural -ia, in the genitive plural -ium, and in the accusative plural regularly -īs. But the forms of some are doubtful.

Note. — An ablative in -e is sometimes found in poetry.

- c. celer, swift, as a noun, denoting a military rank, has celerum in the genitive plural. The name Celer has the ablative in -e.
- 85. The remaining adjectives of the third declension are Consonant-stems; but all except Comparatives have the form of 1-stems in the ablative singular -1, the nominative, accusative, and vocative plural neuter -1a, and the genitive plural -1um. In the other cases they follow the rule of Consonant-stems.

NOTE. — The ablative singular of these words often has -e.

These adjectives (except comparatives) have the same nominative singular for all genders, and hence are called *adjectives of one termination*. All except stems in 1- or r- form the nominative singular from the stem by adding -s.

a. Adjectives of one termination are declined as follows: --

atrōx, fierce.			egēns, <i>needy</i> .	
STEM atroc-			STEM egent-	
Sing.	M., F.	N.	M., F.	N.
N., V.	atrōx	atrōx	egēns	egēns
GEN.	atrōc is	atrōc is	egent is	egent is
DAT.	atrōc i	atrōc ī	egent i	egent i
Acc.	atrōc em	atrōx	egent em	egēn s
ABL.	atrōc i (e)	atrōc ī (e)	egent i (e)	egent i (e)
Plur.				
N., V.	atrōc ēs	atrōc ia	egent ēs	egen tia
GEN.	atrōc ium	atrōc ium	egent ium	egentium
DAT.	atrōc ibus	atrōc ibus	egen tibus	egent ibus
Acc.	atrōc īs (ēs)	atrōc ia	egent īs (ēs)	egent ia
ABL.	atrōc ibus	atrōc ibus	egen tibus	egent ibus

b. Other examples are the following: ---

	concors, har	monious.	iëns, go	ing.	pār, equ	zl.
	STEM CON	cord-	eunt-		par-	
Sing.	M., F.	N.	M., F.	N.	M., F.	N.
N., V.	concors	concors	iens	iēns	pār	pār
GEN.	concord is	concordis	eun tis	eun tis	păr is	păr is
Dat.	concordī	concordī	eunti	eunt i	pari	pari
Acc.	concord em	concors	euntem	iēn s	par em	pār
ABL.	concordi	concord i	eunte (i)	eunte (i)	parī	parī
Plur.						
N., V.	concordēs	concord ia	eunt ēs	euntia	par es	par ia
GEN.	co ncord ium	concordium	eunt ium	euntium	par ium	parium
D., ABL.	concordibus	concordibus	eun tibus	euntibus	paribus	paribus
Acc.	concord īs (ēs)	concord ia	eun tīs(ēs))eun tia	paris(ēs)	par ia
	praeceps,	headlona	dives, ra	ic h	uber, fer	tile
		-	dīvit		-	
Sina	STEM pre	=			tibe:	
Sing.	M., F.	N.	M., F.	N.	M., F.	N.
N., V.	M., F. praeceps	N. praeceps	M., F. dives	N. dives	м., г. über	N. über
N., V. GEN.	M., F. praeceps praecipitis	N. praeceps praecipitis	M., F. dīves dīvitis	n. dīves dīvi tis	M., F. über überis	N. über über is
N., V. GEN. DAT.	M., F. praeceps praecipitis praecipitī	N. praeceps praecipitis praecipitī	M., F. dīves dīvi tis dīvit ī	n. dīves dīvi tis dīvit ī	M., F. über überis überi	N. über über is über i
N., V. GEN. DAT. Acc.	M., F. praeceps praecipitis praecipiti praecipitem	N. praeceps praecipitis praecipiti praeceps	M., F. dīves dīvitis dīvitī dīvitem	N. dīves dīvi tis dīvitī dīves	M., F. über überis überi überem	N. über über is über ī über
N., V. GEN. DAT. ACC. ABL.	M., F. praeceps praecipitis praecipitī	N. praeceps praecipitis praecipitī	M., F. dīves dīvi tis dīvit ī	n. dīves dīvi tis dīvit ī	M., F. über überis überi	N. über über is über i
N., V. GEN. DAT. ACC. ABL. Plur.	M., F. praeceps praecipitis praecipiti praecipitem praecipiti	N. praeceps praecipitis praecipiti praeceps praecipiti	M., F. dīves dīvitis dīviti dīvitem dīvite	N. dīves dīvitis dīviti dīves dīvite	M., F. über überis überi überem überem	N. über überis überi über über
N., V. GEN. DAT. ACC. ABL. Plur. N., V.	M., F. praeceps praecipitis praecipiti praecipitem praecipiti praecipiti	N. praeceps praecipitis praeceps praecipiti praeceps praecipiti	M., F. dīves dīvitis dīviti dīvitem dīvite	N. dīves dīvitis dīviti dīves dīvite	M., F. über überis überi überem übere	N. über überis überi über über
N., V. GEN. DAT. ACC. ABL. Plur. N., V. GEN.	M., F. praeceps praecipitis praecipiti praecipitem praecipiti praecipites [praeci	N. praeceps praecipitis praeceps praecipiti praeceps praecipiti praecipitia pitium] 1	M., F. dives divits diviti divitem divite divites divites	N. dīves dīvitis dīviti dīves dīvite [dītia] dīvitum	M., F. über überis überi überem übere überes überes	N. über überis überi über über übere übera überum
N., V. GEN. DAT. ACC. ABL. Plur. N., V. GEN. D., ABL	M., F. praeceps praecipitis praecipiti praecipitem praecipiti praecipites [praeci	N. praeceps praecipitis praeceps praecipiti praeceps praecipiti praecipitia pitium] 1 praecipitibus	M., F. dīves dīvits dīvitī dīvitem dīvite dīvitēs dīvitūs	N. dīves dīvitis dīviti dīves dīvite [dītia] dīvitum dīvitibus	M., F. über überis überi überem übere überes überum überibus	N. Tiber überis überi über über übere übera überum überibus
N., V. GEN. DAT. ACC. ABL. Plur. N., V. GEN.	M., F. praeceps praecipitis praecipiti praecipitem praecipiti praecipites [praeci	N. praeceps praecipitis praeceps praecipiti praeceps praecipiti praecipitia pitium] 1 praecipitibus	M., F. dives divits diviti divitem divite divites divites	N. dīves dīvitis dīviti dīves dīvite [dītia] dīvitum dīvitibus	M., F. über überis überi überem übere überes überum überibus	N. über überis überi über über übere übera überum

vetus, old.

STEM Veter- (for Vetes or Vetos-)

PLURAL.

SINGULAR.

	M., F.	N.	M., F.	N.
N., V.	vetus	vetus	veterēs	vetera
GEN.	veter is	veter is	vete rum	veter um
Dat.	veterī	veteri	veter ibus	veter ibus
Acc.	veter em	vetus	veter ës	vetera
ABL.	veter e	veter e	veter ibus	vet eribus

¹ Given by grammarians, but not found.

NOTE. — Of these vetus is originally an s-stem. In most s-stems the r has intruded itself into the nominative also, as bi-corpor (for bi-corpos), dē-gener (for dē-genēs).

c. A few of these adjectives used as nouns, have a feminine form in -a: as, clienta, hospita, so the appellative Iūnō Sōspita.

3. Comparatives.

86. Comparatives are declined as follows:—

n	aelior, <i>better</i> .		plūs,	more.
Stem	melior- for melios	-	plūr- for plūs-	
Sing.	M., F.	N.	M., F.	N.
N., V.	melior	melius		plūs
GEN.	meliōr is	meliōr is		plūr is
DAT.	meli ōrī	meliōr i		
Acc.	meliõr em	melius		plūs
ABL.	meliōr e (ī)	meliōr e (ī)		plūr e
Plur.				
N., V.	meliōr ēs	meliōr a	plūr ēs	plūra
GEN.	meliõr um	meliōr um	plūr ium	plūr ium
DAT.	meliō ribus	meliōr ibus	pl ūribus	plūr ibus
Acc.	meliōr is (ēs)	meliõr a	plūr īs (ēs)	plūra
ABL.	meliōr ibus	meliōr ibus	plūr ibus	plūr ibus

- a. The stem of comparatives properly ended in os-; but this became or- except in the neuter singular (nom., acc., voc.), where s is retained, and ŏ is changed to ŭ (cf. honŏr, corpus). Thus comparatives appear to have two terminations.
- b. The neuter singular plūs is used only as a noun. The genitive (rarely ablative) is used as an expression of value (cf. § 252. a). The dative is not found in classic use. The compound complūrēs, several, has sometimes neuter plural complūria.

All other comparatives are declined like melior.

4. Case-Forms.

- 87. In adjectives of Consonant stems the following Case-forms are to be remarked:—
- a. The ablative singular commonly ends in -i; but adjectives used as nouns (as superstes, survivor) have -e. Participles in -ns

used as such, or as nouns, regularly have -e; but when used as adjectives, -i.

The following have uniformly -i: āmēns, anceps, concors (and other compounds of cor), consors (but as a substantive, -e,) dēgener, hebes, ingēns, inops, memor (and its compounds), par (in prose), perpes, praeceps, praeceps, teres.

- b. The following have regularly -e: caeles, compos [†dēses], dives, hospes, pauper, particeps, princeps, superstes, sospes; also patrials (see § 54. 3) and stems in āt-, īt-, nt-, rt-, when used as nouns, and sometimes when used as adjectives.
- c. The genitive plural ends commonly in -ium. The accusative plural regularly ends in -is, even in comparatives, which are less inclined to the i- declension.
 - d. The genitive plural ends in -um: -
- Always in dives, compos, inops, particeps, princeps, praepes, supplex, and compounds of nouns which have -um: as, quadru-pēs, bi-color.
- 2. Sometimes, in poetry, in participles in -ns: as, silentum concilium, a council of the silent shades (Virg.).
- c. In vetus (gen. -ĕris), pūbes (gen. -ĕris), ūber (gen. -ĕris), which did not become i-stems, the endings -e (abl. sing.), -a (neut. nom. acc. plur.), -um (gen. plur.) are regular. (Ūber has also -ī in abl.)
- f. 1. Several adjectives vary in declension: as, gracilis (-us), hilaris (-us), inermis (-us), bicolor (-ōrus).
 - 2. A few are indeclinable: as, damnās, frūgi, nēquam.
- 3. Several are defective: as, exspēs (only nom.), exlēx, exlēgem (only nom. and acc. sing.), pernox, pernocte (only nom. and abl. sing.); prīmōris, sēminecis, which lack the nom. sing.

5. Special Uses.

- 88. The following special uses are to be observed:—
- a. Many adjectives have the meaning and construction of nouns: as, amīcus, a friend; aequālis, a contemporary; mātōrēs, ancestors.
- b. Many adjectives, from their signification, can be used only in the masculine and feminine. Such are adulēscēns, youthful; [†dēses], -idis, slothful; inops, -opis, poor; sospes, -itis, safe. So, senex, old man, and invenis, young man, are masculine only.

- c. Many nouns may be used as adjectives: as, pedes, a footman or on foot: so especially nouns in -tor (M.) and -trix (F., also as N.), denoting the agent: as, victor exercitus, the conquering army; victricia arma. victorious arms.
- d. Certain forms of many adjectives are regularly used as adverbs. These are the accusative and ablative of the neuter singular: as, multum, multo, much; and the neuter singular of comparatives: as, melius, better; levius, more lightly.

COMPARISON.

Latin, as English, has three degrees of comparison: the *Positive*, *Comparative*, and *Superlative*.

1. Regular Comparison.

- 89. The Comparative is formed by adding -ior (neuter -ius), the Superlative by adding -issimus (-a, -um) to the stem of the Positive, which loses its final vowel: as, cārus, dear (st. cāro-); cārior, dearer; cārissimus, dearest. aecus, equal (st. aequo); aequior, more equal; aequissimus, most equal.
- levis, light (st. levi-); levior, lighter; levissimus, lightest.
 félix, happy (st. félic-); félicior, happier; félicissimus, happiest.
 hebes, dull(st. hebet-); hebetior, duller; hebetissimus, dullest.
- a. Adjectives in -er form the superlative by adding -rimus to the nominative. The comparative is regular: as, —

ācer, keen; ācrior, ācerrimus.

miser, wretched; miserior, miserrimus.

So vetus (gen. veteris) veterrimus; and mātūrus, besides its regular superlative (mātūrissimus) has a rare form mātūrrimus.

For the comparative of vetus, vetustior (from vetustus), is used.

- b. The following in -lis add -limus to the stem clipped of its vowel: facilis (st. facili-), difficilis, similis, dissimilis, gracilis, humilis. The comparative is regular: as, facilis, facilior, facillimus.
- c. Compounds in -dicus (saying), -ficus (doing), -volus (willing) take in comparison the forms of corresponding participles in -ns: as,—

maledicus, slanderous; maledicentior, maledicentissimus. malevolus, spiteful; malevolentior, malevolentissimus.

d. Adjectives in -us preceded by a vowel rarely have forms of comparison, but take the adverbs magis, more; māximē, most: as,—

idoneus, fit : magis idoneus, māximē idoneus.

So, also, most derivatives in -ĭcus, -ĭdus, -ālis, -āris, -īlis, -ŭlus, -undus, -timus, -īnus, -īvus, -ōrus, with many compounds (as dēgener, inops) take magis and māximē.

- e. Participles used as adjectives are regularly compared: as, patiens, patient; patientior, patientissimus. apertus, open; apertior, apertissimus.
- f. A form of diminutive is made upon the stem of some comparatives: as, grandius-culus, a little larger (see § 164. a).

2. Irregular and Defective Comparison.

30. Several adjectives have in their comparison irregular forms: as.—

bonus, melior, optimus, good, better, best.

malus, pēlor, passimus, bad, worse, worst.

māgnus, mālor, māximus, great, greater, greatest.

parvus, minor, minimus, small, less, least.

multus, plūs (N.), plūrimus, much, more, most.

multi, plūrēs, plūrimi, many, more, most.

nēquam (indecl.), nēquior, nēquissimus, worthless.

trūgī (indecl.), trūgālior, trūgālissimus, useful, worthy.

dexter, dexterior, dextimus, on the right, handy.

NOTE. — These irregularities arise from the use of different stems.

- **91.** Some Comparatives and Superlatives appear without a Positive:
 - a. The following are formed from stems not used as adjectives:—cis, citrā (adv. on this side): citerior, citimus, hither, hithermost. in, intrā (prep. in, within): interior, intimus, inner, inmost. prae, prō (prep. before): prior, prīmus, former, first. prope (adv. near): propior, proximus, nearer, next. ültrā (adv. beyond): ülterior, ültimus, farther, farthest.

b. Of the following the positives are rare, except as nouns:—

exterus, exterior, extrēmus (extimus), outer, outmost.

[inferus], inferior, infimus (imus), lower, lowest (§ 82. d).

[posterus], posterior, postrēmus (postumus), latter, last.

[superus], superior, suprēmus or summus, higher, highest.

But the plurals exteri, foreigners; inferi, the gods below; posteri, posterity; superi, the heavenly gods, are common.

- c. From iuvenis, youth, senex, old man are formed iūnior, younger, senior, older. For these minor nātū and māior nātū are sometimes used (nātū being often omitted). The superlative is regularly expressed by minimus and māximus, with or without nātū.
- d. In the following, one or other of the forms of comparison is wanting:—
- The positive is wanting in deterior, deterrimus; ocior, ocissimus; potior, potissimus.
- 2. The comparative is wanting in bellus, caesius, falsus, fidus (with its compounds), inclutus, invictus, invitus, novus, pius, sacer, vafer, vetus (§ 89. a).
- 3. The superlative is wanting in agrestis, alacer, arcānus, caecus, diūturnus, exīlis, ingēns, iēiūnus, longīncus, oblīcus, opīmus, proclīvis, propīncus, satur, sēgnis, šērus, supīnus, surdus, taciturnus, tempestīvus, teres, vīcīnus, and in some adjectives in -īlis.

NOTE. — Many adjectives —as aureus, golden — are from their meaning incapable of comparison; but each language has its own usage.

3. Comparison of Adverbs.

92. The comparative of an Adverb is the neuter accusative of the comparative of the corresponding Adjective; the superlative is the Adverb in -5 formed regularly from the superlative of the Adjective: as,—

cārē, dearly (from cārus, dear); cārius, cārissimē.

misere, wretchedly (from miser, wretched); miserius, miserrimē.

leviter (from levis, light); levius, levissimē.

audācter (audāciter) (from audāx, bold); audācius, audācissimē.

benē, well (from bonus, good); melius, optimē.

malě, ill (from malus, bad); pēius, pessimē.

antīquē, anciently, (from antīcus), antīquius, antīquissimē.

The following are irregular or defective: -

diū, long (in time); diūtius, diūtissimē.

potius, rather; potissimum, first of all, in preference to all.

saepe, often; saepius, oftener, again; saepissimē.

satis, enough; satius, preferable.

secus, otherwise; secius, worse,

multum (multō), magis, mā simē, much, more, most.

parum, not enough, minus, less, minimē, least.

4. Signification.

- 98. Besides their regular signification (as in English), the forms of comparison are used as follows:—
- a. The Comparative denotes a considerable or excessive degree of a quality: as, brevior, rather short; audacior, too bold.
- b. The Superlative (of eminence) may denote a very high degree of a quality with no distinct comparison, often strengthened by quam, vel, or unus: as, māximus numerus, a very great number; quam plūrimi, as many as possible; quam māximē potest (māximē quam potest), as much as can be; virum unum doctissimum, the one most learned man.
- c. With quisque, each, the superlative has a peculiar signification. Thus the phrase ditissimus quisque means, all the richest (each richest man); primus quisque, all the first (each first man in his order). Two superlatives with quisque imply a proportion: as,—

sapientissimus quisque aequissimo animo moritur (Cat. Maj. 83), the wisest men die with the greatest equanimity.

- d. A high degree of a quality is also denoted by such adverbs as admodum, valde, very, or by per or prae in composition: as, valde malus, very bad; permagnus, very great; praealtus, very high.
- e. A low degree of a quality is indicated by sub in composition (as, subrūsticus, rather clownish); or by minus, not very; minimē, not at all; parum, not enough; non satis, not much.
- ¹ As in taking things one by one off a pile, each thing is uppermost when you take it.

NUMERALS.

z. Cardinal and Ordinal.

94. Cardinal numbers are the regular numbers used in counting. Ordinal numbers are adjectives derived from these to express order or place.

Note. — Cardinal numbers answer the question quot? how many? Ordinal numbers, the question quotus? which in order? one of how many?

These two series are as follows:—

	F	ROMAN
CARDINAL.	ORDINAL. NU	MERALS.
ūnus, ūna, ūnum, one.	prīmus, -a, -um, first.	I.
duo, duae, duo, two.	secundus (alter), second.	II.
trēs, tria, three.	tertius, third.	III.
quattuor (quātuor)	quārtus	IV.
quīnque	quīntus	v.
sex	sextus	VI.
septem	septimus	VII.
octō `	octāvus	VIII.
novem	nōnus	IX.
decem	decimus	x.
ūndecim	ūndecimus	XI.
duodecim	duodecimus	XII.
tredecim (decem et trēs)	tertius decimus	XIII.
quattuordecim	quārtus decimus	XIV.
quīndecim	quīntus decimus	xv.
sēdecim	sextus decimus	xvi.
septendecim	septimus decimus	xvII.
duodēvīgintī (octodecim)	duodēvīcēnsimus	XVIII.
ūndēvīgintī (novendecim)	ūndēvīcēnsimus	XIX.
vīgintī	vīcēnsimus (vīgēnsimus)	xx.
vīgintī ūnus	vīcēnsimus prīmus	XXI.
(or ūnus et vīgintī)	(ūnus et vīcēnsimus, etc.	.)
trīgintā	trīcēnsimus	xxx.
quadrāgintā	quadrāgēnsimus	XL.
quīnquāgintā	quīnquāgēnsimus	L.
sexāgintā	sexāgēnsimus	LX.
septuāgintā	septuāgēnsimus	LXX.
	ūnus, ūna, ūnum, one. duo, duae, duo, two. trēs, tria, three. quattuor (quātuor) quīnque sex septem octō novem decem ūndecim duodecim tredecim (decem et trēs) quattuordecim quīndecim sēdecim septendecim duodēvīgintī (octōdecim) undēvīgintī (novendecim) vīgintī vīgintī ūnus (or ūnus et vīgintī) trīgintā quadrāgintā quadrāgintā quīnquāgintā sexāgintā	CARDINAL. ORDINAL. NU ūnus, ūna, ūnum, one. prīmus, -a, -um, first. duo, duae, duo, two. secundus (alter), second. trēs, tria, three. tertius, third. quattus quīntus quīntus sex sextus septem octāvus novem nōnus decem decimus ūndecim duodecimus tredecim (decem et trēs) tertius decimus quattuordecim quārtus decimus quindecim sextus decimus sēdecim sextus decimus duodēvīgintī (octōdecim) duodēvīcēnsimus vīgintī vīcēnsimus (vīgēnsimus) vīgintī ūnus vīcēnsimus prīmus (or ūnus et vīgintī) (ūnus et vīcēnsimus, etc. trīcēnsimus quāragēnsimus sexāgēnsimus sexāgēnsimus

C	ARDINAL.	ORDINAL. ROMAN	NUMERALS.
8o.	octōgintā	octōgēnsimus	LXXX.
90.	nōnāgintā	nōnāgēnsimus	XC.
100.	centum	centēnsimus	c.
101.	centum (et) ūnus, etc.	centēnsimus prīmus, etc.	CI.
200.	ducentī, -ae, -a	ducentēnsimus	cc.
300.	trecentī	trecentēnsimus	ccc.
400.	quadringentī	quadringentēnsimus	cccc.
500.	quingenti	quīngentēnsimus	Io, or D.
600.	sexcentī (sēscentī)	sexcentēnsimus	DC.
700.	septingentī	septingentēnsimus	DCC.
800.	octingentī	octingentēnsimus	DCCC.
900.	nōngentī	nōngentēnsimus	DCCCC.
1000.	mille	millēnsimus	CIO, or M.
5000.	quīnque mīlia (millia)	quīnquiēns millēnsimus	Igg.
10,000.	decem mīlia (millia)	deciēns millēnsimus	ccioo.
100,000.	centum mīlia (millia)	centiēns millēnsimus	ccciooo.

Note. — The forms in - \bar{s} nsimus are often written without the n: as, $v\bar{i}c\bar{s}simus$, etc.

- a. For the inflection of $\overline{\mathbf{u}}$ nus, see § 83. It often has the meaning of same or only. The plural is used in this sense; but also, as a simple numeral, with a plural noun of a singular meaning: as, $\overline{\mathbf{u}}$ na castra, one camp (cf. § 95. b). The plural occurs also in the phrase $\overline{\mathbf{u}}$ ni et alteri, one party and the other (the ones and the others).
 - b. Duo, two, and ambo, both, are thus declined: -

Nom.	duo	duae	duo
GEN.	duō rum	duā rum	duō rum
DAT.	duō bus	duā bus	duō bus
Acc.	duōs (duo)	duā s	duo
ABL.	duō bus	duā bus	duō bus

c. Trēs, tria, three, is an i-stem, and is regularly declined like the plural of levis (see § 84). The other cardinal numbers, up to centum (100), are indeclinable.

The forms octodecim, novendecim are rare, duodeviginti, undeviginti being used instead. Similar forms for higher numbers are occasionally found: as, duodequadraginta, thirty-eight; undecentum, ninety-nine.

- d. The hundreds, up to 1000, are o-stems, and are regularly declined like the plural of bonus.
- e. Mille, a thousand, is in the singular an indeclinable adjective. In the plural (milia or millia, thousands), it is a neuter noun, followed by a genitive plural. Thus, cum mille hominibus, with a thousand men; but cum duobus milibus hominum, with two thousand men.
- Note. The singular mille is sometimes found as a noun in the nominative and accusative: as mille hominum misit; rarely in the other cases.
 - f. The ordinals are o-stems, and are declined like bonus.

2. Distributives.

95. Distributive Numerals are declined like the plural of bonus.

Note. — These answer the question quoteni? how many of each, or at a time? as, —

ı.	singuli, one by one.	18.	octōnī dēnī or	100.	centēnī
2,	bīnī, two-and-two.		duodēvīcēnī	200.	ducēnī
3.	ternī, trīnī	19.	novēnī dēnī <i>or</i>	300.	trecēnī
4.	quaternī		ũndē vīcēnī	400.	quadringēnī
5.	quīnī	20.	vīcēnī	500.	quīngēnī
6.	sēnī	21.	vīcēnī sīngulī, etc	600.	sēscēnī
7.	septēnī	30.	trīcēnī	700.	septingēnī
8.	octōnī	40.	quadrāgēnī	800.	octingēnī
9.	novēnī	50.	quīnquāgēnī	900.	nōngēnī
10.	dēnī	60.	sexāgēnī	1000.	millēnī
ĮĮ.	ūndēnī	70.	septuāgēnī	2000.	bīna mīlia
I 2.	duodēnī	8o.	octōgēnī	0,000.	dēna mīlia
13.	terņī dēnī, etc.	90.	nōnāgēnī 1	00,000.	centēna mīlia

Distributives are used as follows: --

- a. In the sense of so many apiece or on each side: as, singula singulis, one apiece (one each to each one); agrī septēna tūgera plēbī dīvīsa sunt, i.e. seven jugera to each citizen, etc.
- b. Instead of cardinals, to express simple number, with a noun plural in form but singular in meaning: as, bina castra, two camps (duō castra would mean two forts). But the plural uni is used (instead of singuli) to signify one (see § 94. a), and trini (not terni) for three.

- c. In multiplication: as, bis bīna, twice two; ter septēnīs diēbus, in thrice seven days.
- d. By the poets freely instead of cardinals, particularly where pairs or sets are meant: as, bina hastilia two shafts (two in a set).

3. Numeral Adverbs.

96. The Numeral Adverbs answer the question quotiens (quoties), how many times, how often.

ı.	semel, once.	I 2.	duodeciēns	40.	quadrāgiēns
2.	bis, twice.	13.	terdeciēns	50.	quīnquāgiēns
3.	ter, thrice.	14.	quaterdeciēns	60.	sexāgiēns
4.	quater	15.	quīndeciēns	70.	septuāgiēns
5.	quīnquiēns (-ēs)	16.	sēdeciēns	8o.	octōgiēns
6.	sexiēns (-ēs)	17.	septiēsdeciēns	90.	nōnāgiēns
7.	septiēns (-ēs)	ı 8.	duodēvīciēns	100.	centiēns
8.	octiens	19.	ūndēvīciēns	200.	ducentiēns
9.	noviēns	20.	vīciēns	300.	trecentiēns
10.	deciēns	21.	semel et vīciēns,	etc. 1000.	mīliēns
ıı.	ūndeciëns	30.	trīciēns	10,000.	deciēns mīliēns

NOTE. — They are used, in combination with mille, to express the higher numbers: as, ter et trīciēns (centēna mīlia) sēstertiūm, 3,300,000 sesterces. Forms in -ns are often written without the n: as, quīnquiēs.

4. Other Numerals.

- 97. The adjectives simplex, single, duplex, double, two-fold, triplex, quadru-, quincu-, septem-, decem-, centu-, sesqui- (1½), multi-plex, manifold, are called Multiplicatives.
 - a. Proportionals are: duplus, triplus, etc., twice as great, etc.
- b. Temporals: bimus, trimus, of two or three years' age; biennis, triennis, lasting two or three years; bimestris, of two months; biduum, biennium, a period of two days or years.
 - c. PARTITIVES: binarius, ternarius, of two or three parts.
 - d. Fractions: dimidia pars, a half; tertia pars, a third.

NOTE. — But fractions are regularly expressed by special words denoting the parts of the as (pound or unit): as, triens, a third; bes, two-thirds.

e. Other derivatives are: unio, unity; binio, the two (of dice); primānus, of the first legion; primārius, of the first rank; denārius, a sum of 10 asses; binus (distributive), double, etc.

5. PRONOUNS.

98. Pronouns have special forms of declension.

1. Personal Pronouns.

The Personal pronouns of the first person are ego, I, nos, we; of the secand person, tū, thou, vos, ye or you.

FIRST PERSON.

Nom.	ego, <i>I</i> .	nos, we.
GEN.	mei, of me.	nostrüm (-tri), of us.
DAT.	mihi (mī), to me.	nobis, to us.
Acc.	mē, me.	nōs, us.
Voc.		
ABL.	mē, by me.	nõbis, <i>by us</i> .

SECOND PERSON.

Nom.	tū, <i>thou</i> or <i>you</i> .	võs, ye or you.
GEN.	tui,	vostrūm, vostri ; vestrūm (-tri)
DAT.	tibi	võbis
Acc.	tē	võs
Voc.	tū	vōs ·
ABL.	tē	võbis 1

- a. The personal pronouns of the third person—he, she, it, they—are wanting in Latin, a demonstrative being used for them when required.
- δ . The plural **nos** is often used for the singular **ego**; the plural **vos** never for the singular $t\bar{u}$.

2. Reflexive Pronouns.

Reflexive pronouns are used in the Oblique Cases to refer to the Subject of the sentence or clause (see § 196).

a. In the first and second persons the oblique cases of the Personal pronouns are used as Reflexives: as, to laudas, you praise yourself; nobis persuademus, we persuade ourselves.

b. The reflexive pronoun of the Third Person has a special form, the same for both singular and plural. It is thus declined:—

GEN. sui, of himself, herself, themselves.

Dat. sibi, to himself, herself, themselves.

Acc. se (sese), himself, herself, themselves.

ABL. se (sese), by (etc.) himself, herself, then exelves.

3. Possessive Pronouns.

The Possessive pronouns are, for the first person: mens, wy, noster, our; for the second person: tuus, thy, your, voster, vester, your; for the third person: suus, his, her, their. These are declined like adjectives of the first and second declensions (see §§ 81, 82). But meus has regularly mī (rarely meus) in the vocative singular masculine.

Note. — Suus is always reflexive, referring to the subject. For a possessive pronoun of the third person not referring to the subject, the genitive of a demonstrative must be used. Thus, patrem suum occidit, he killed his (own) father; but patrem ēius occidit, he killed his (somebody else's) father.

- 99. In the meaning and use of the Personal, Reflexive, and Possessive pronouns it is to be observed that —
- a. To express Possession and similar ideas the possessive pronouns must be used, not the genitive of the personal or reflexive pronouns. Thus, my father is pater meus never pater mei.
 - b. The forms nostrum, vostrum, etc., are used partitively: as, -

unusquisque nostrum, each one of us; but also vostrum omnium, of all of you.

c. The genitives mei, tui, sui, nostri, vestri are chiefly used objectively (see § 213. N.): as,—

memor sis nostri, be mindful of us, (me). me tui pudet, I am ashamed of you.

d. The reciprocals one another and each other are expressed by inter so or alter . . . alterum: as, —

alter alterius ova frangit, they break each other's eggs (one . . . of the other).

inter se amant, they love one another.

- PRONOUNS.
- e. The preposition cum with, is joined with the ablative of the personal and reflexive pronouns: as, tecum loquitur, he talks with you.
- f. To the personal and reflexive (and sometimes to the possessive) pronouns certain enclitics are joined for emphasis: -met to all except tu (nom.); -te to tu (tute, also tutimet); -pte to the ablative singular of the adjectives, and in early Latin to the others, as, —

võsmetipsõs proditis, you betray your own very selves. suopte pondere, by its own weight.

4. Demonstrative Prenouns.

- 100. The Demonstrative pronouns are hic, this; is, ille, iste, that; with the Intensive ipse, self, and idem, same.
- a. Ille is a later form of ollus (olle), which is sometimes used in poetry; a genitive singular in -ī, -ae, -ī occurs in ille and iste.
- b. Hie is compounded of the stem ho- with the demonstrative -ce. In most of the forms final e is dropped, in some the whole termination. But in these latter it is sometimes retained for emphasis; as, hūius-ce, hīs-ce. Idem is the demonstrative is with the affix -dem.
- 101. The demonstratives are used either with nouns as Adjectives, or alone as Pronouns. From their signification they cannot (except ipse) have a vocative. They are thus declined:—

		hic, this.		1	is, that.	•
Sing.	M.	F.	N.	M.	F.	N.
Nom.	hīc	haec	hōc	is	ea	iđ
GEN.	hūius	hūius	hūius	ēius	ēius	ēius
DAT.	huic	huic	huic	eĩ	ei	eī
Acc.	hunc	hanc	hōc	eum	eam	id
ABL.	hōc	hāc	hōc	еō	eā	eō
Plur.						
Nom.	hī	hae	haec	ī (eī)	eae	ea
GEN.	hõrum	hārum	hõrum	eõrum	eārum	eōrum
Dat.	hīs	his	hīs	eīs (īs)	eis (is)	eis (is)
Acc.	hōs	hās	haec	eōs	eās	ea
ABL.	hīs	his	his	eis (is)	eis (is)	eis (is)

Sing.	ill	e, that.		ip	Be, self.	
Nom.	ille	illa	illud	ipse	ipsa	ipsum
GEN.	illius	illīus	illius	ipsīus	ipsīus	ipsīus
DAT.	illi -	illi	illī	ipsī	ipsi	ipsi
Acc.	illum	illam	illud	ipsum	ipsam	ipsum
Voc.				ipse	ipsa	ipsum
ABL.	illō	illā	:111 <u>9</u>	ipsõ	ipsā	ipsõ
Plur.		٩	!			
Nom.	illī	illae	illa	ipsī	ipsae	ipsa
GEN.	illõrum	illārum	illörum	ipsõrum	ipsārum	ipsõrum
DAT.	illīs	illīs	illis	ipsīs	ipsīs	ipsīs
Acc.	illös	illās	illa	ipsõs	ipsās	ipsa
Voc.				ipsī	ipsae	ipsa
ABL.	illis	illīs	illis	ipsīs	ipsīs	ipsīs

idem, the same.

SINGULAR.

PLURAL.

N.	idem	eădem	ĭdem	dem (ei-) eaedem eădem
				ieörundem eärundem eörundem
D.	eidem	eidem	eīdem	eīsdem(īs-) eīsdem(īs-) eīsdem(īs-)
Ac.	eundem	eandem	ĭdem	eõsdem eäsdem eädem
Ав.	eōdem	eādem	eōdem	eisdem(is-) eisdem(is-)

iste, ista, istud, that (yonder), is declined like ille.

Ille and iste are combined with the demonstrative -ce. Thus, -

Sing.	M.	F.	N.	M.	F.	N.
Nom.	illic (illaec	illōc (illūc)	istic	istaec	istoc (istuc)
Acc.	illunç	illanc	illōc (illūc)	istunc	istanc	istoc (istuc)
ABL.	illoc	illāc	illōc	istõc	istāc	istoc
Plur.				,		
N Acc			Illano			igtage

Note. — This appended -ce is also found with pronouns in numerous combinations: as, hūiusce, hunce, hōrunce, hārunce, hōsce, hīsce (cf. § 100. δ), illīusce, īsce; also with the interrogative -ne, in hōcine, hōscine, istūcine, illīcine, etc. The intensive -pse is found in the forms eapse (nom.), eumpse, eampse, eōpse, eāpse (abl.).

a. The combinations hūiusmodī (hūiuscemodī), ēiusmodī, etc., are used as indeclinable adjectives, equivalent to tālis, such as, rēs ēiusmodī, such a thing (a thing of that sort; cf. § 215).

102. In the use of these demonstratives it is to be observed that —

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- a. Hic is used of what is near the speaker (in time, place, thought, or on the written page). It is sometimes used of the speaker himself; sometimes for "the latter" of two persons or things mentioned in speech or writing; more rarely for "the former," when that, though more remote on the written page, is nearer the speaker in time, place, or thought.
- b. Ille is used of what is *remote* (in time, etc.). It is sometimes used to mean "the former" (see under hic, a); also (usually following its noun) of what is *famous* or *well-known*.
- c. Iste is used of what is between the two others in remoteness: often in allusion to the person addressed, hence called the demonstrative of the second person. It especially refers to an opponent, and frequently implies a kind of antagonism or contempt.
- d. Is is a weaker demonstrative than the others and does not denote any special object, but refers to one just mentioned, or to be afterwards explained by a relative. It is used oftener than the others as a personal pronoun; and is often merely a correlative to the relative qui: as, eum quem, one whom; eum consulem qui non dubitet (Cic.), a consul who will not hesitate.
- e. Ipse may be used with a personal pronoun of either person, or a noun: as nos ipsi (nosmetipsi), we ourselves; ipsi fontes, the very fountains; also independently (the verb or the context implying the pronoun), as ipsi adestis, you are yourselves present.

NOTE. — In English, the pronouns himself, etc., are used both intensively (as, he will come himself) and reflexively (as, he will kill himself): in Latin the former would be ipse; the latter, se or sese.

f. The pronouns hic, tile, and is are used to point in either direction, back to something mentioned or forward to something to be mentioned. The neuter forms are used to refer to a clause, phrase, or idea: as, est illud quidem vel māximum animum vidēre (Tusc. i. 22, 52), that is in truth a very great thing, to see the soul.

5. Relative Pronouns.

108. The relative pronoun qui, who, which, is thus declined:—

SINGULAR.

PLURAL.

Nom.	qui	quae	quod	qui	quae	quae
GEN.	cūius	cūius	cūius	quōrum	quārum	quōrum
DAT.	cui	cui	cui	quibus	quibus	quibus
Acc.	quem	quam	quod	quõs	quās	quae
ABL.	quō	quã	quõ	quibus	quibus	quibus

6. Interrogative and Indefinite Pronouns.

-

104. The interrogative or indefinite quis (qui), who? which? any, is declined in the singular as follows:—

Nom.	quis (qui)	quae	quid (quod)
GEN.	cūins	cūius	cūius
DAT.	cui	cui	cui
Acc.	quem	quam	quid (quod)
ABL.	quō	quã	quō

The plural is the same as that of the Relative. The singular quis is rare as an indefinite (see § 105.d).

Note.—The Relative, Interrogative, and Indefinite Pronouns are originally of the same Stem, and most of the forms are the same.

CASE-FORMS.—a. The relative has always qui, quae, quod. The interrogative and indefinite have quis, quae, quid, substantive, and qui, quae, quod, adjective: as, quis vocat? who calls? quid vides? what do you see? qui homo vocat? what man calls? quod templum vides? what temple do you see?

NOTE. — But qui is often used without any apparent adjective force; and quis is very common as an adjective, especially with words denoting a person: as, qui nominat me? who calls my name? quis dies fuit? what day was it? quis homo? what man? but often qui homo? what sort of a man? nescio qui sis, I know not who you are.

- b. Old forms for the genitive and dative are quoius, quoi.
- c. The form qui is used for the ablative of both numbers and all genders; but especially as an adverb (how, by which way, in any way), and in the combination quicum, with whom, as an interrogative or an indefinite relative.
 - d. A dative and ablative plur. quis is old, but not infrequent.
- e. The preposition cum is joined to all forms of the ablative, as with the personal pronouns: as, quōcum, quicum, quibuscum.

- f. The accusative form quom, cum (stem quo-) is used only as a conjunctive adverb, meaning when or since.
- g. The adjective uter is used as an interrogative and indefinite relative. For its peculiar declension, see § 83.
- 105. The pronouns quis and qui appear in various combinations.
- a. The adverb -cumque (-cunque) with the relative makes an indefinite relative, declined like the simple word: as, quicumque, quaecumque, quodcumque, whoever, whatever; cūiuscunque, etc.

NOTE. — This suffix, with the same meaning, may be used with any relative: as, qualiscumque, of whatever sort; quandocumque (also rarely quandoque), whenever; ubicumque, wherever.

b. The interrogative form doubled makes an indefinite relative: as, quisquis, whoever (so utut, however, ubiubi, wherever). Of quisquis both parts are declined, but the feminine is wanting in classic use: thus—

Sing. Nom. quisquis (quiqui) quidquid (quicquid)

Acc. quemquem quidquid (quicquid)

ABL. quoquo quaqua quoquo

Plur. Nom. quiqui

D., ABL. quibusquibus

- c. Indefinite compounds are: quidam, a, a certain; quispiam, any; quivis, quilibet, any you please; quisquam, any at all. Of these the former part is declined like quis and qui, but all have both quod (adjective) and quid (substantive) in the neuter.
- d. The indefinite quis, otherwise rare, is found in the compound aliquis, some one, and the combinations si quis. if any; no quis, lest any, that none; ecquis, num quis, whether any, and a few others.

These are declined like quis, but have generally qua instead of quae, except in the nominative plural feminine. The forms aliquae, ecquae, nominative singular feminine, occur rarely.

Note. — The compounds quispiam, aliquis, and quisquam are often used instead of quis with sī, nē, and num, and are rather more emphatic, as sī quis, if any one, sī aliquis, if some one, sī quisquam, if any one (ever, cf. h).

These compounds are thus declined: -

Sing.	aliquis	, some.	
Nom.	aliquis (aliqui)	aliqua	aliquid (aliquod)
GEN.	alicūius	alicūius	alicūius
DAT.	alicui	alicui	alicui
Acc.	aliquem	aliquam	aliquid (aliquod)
ABL.	aliquõ	aliquã	aliquō
Plur.			
Nom.	aliqui	aliquae	aliqua
GEN.	aliquõrum	aliquārum	aliquõrum
D., ABL.	aliquibus	aliquibus	aliquibus
Acc.	aliquõs	aliquās	aliqua

The forms in -qui and -quod are adjective; those in -quis and -quid, substantive: as, aliquod bonum, some good thing; but aliquid boni, something good (something of good).

e. The enclitic particle que added to the interrogative gives a universal: as, quisque, every one, uterque, either of two, or both. In this combination quis is declined regularly.

In the compound unusquisque, every single one, both parts are declined, and they are sometimes separated by other words.

Quotus quisque has the signification how many, pray? often in a disparaging sense.

- f. The relative and interrogative have a possessive adjective cūius (-a, -um), whose; and a patrial cūiās (cūiātis), of what country.
- g. Quantus, how great, qualis, of what sort, are derivative adjectives from the interrogative. They are either interrogative or relative, corresponding to the demonstratives tantus, talis.
- k. Quisquam, with ullus, any, unquam, ever, usquam, anywhere, are used only in negative sentences, or where there is an implied negative (as in interrogative or conditional sentences, or after quam, than; sine, without; vix, scarcely): as, nec quisquam ex agmine tanto, and nobody from that great throng; si quisquam est timidus, is ego sum, if any one is timorous, I am the man; sine ullo domino, without any master.
- i. Quisnam is emphatic: pray who? ecquis and numquis are compounded from the indefinite particle on and the interrogative num; they mean not who, but any in a question: as, ecquis nos videt? does any one see us? num quid hoc dubitas, do you at all doubt this?

7. Correlatives.

106. Many pronouns, pronominal adjectives, and adverbs have corresponding demonstrative, relative, interrogative and indefinite forms. Such parallel forms are called CORRELATIVES. They are shown in the following table:—

DEMONSTR.	RELATIVE.	INTERROG	. INDEF. RELATIVE.	INDEF.
is, that, he	qui, who	quis? who	? quisquis, whoever	aliquis, some
tantus, so great	quantus	quantus?	(quantuscumque)	aliquantus
tālis, <i>such</i>	quālis	quālis ?	(quāliscumque)	
ibi, there	ubi	ubi?	ubiubi	alicubi
eō, thither	quõ	quō?	quōquō	aliquō
eā, that way	quā	quā ?	quāquā	aliquā
inde, thence	unde	unde?	(undecumque)	alicunde
tum, then	quom, cum	quando?	(cumcumque)	aliquandō
tot, so many	quot	quot?	quotquot	aliquot
totiës, so often	quoties	quoties ?	(quotiescumque)	aliquoties

- a. The forms tot so many, quot, how (as) many, aliquot, several, totidem, as many, are indeclinable, and may take any gender or case: as, per tot annos, tot proeliis, tot imperatores (Cic.), so many commanders, for so many years, in so many battles.
- b. The relative word in a pair of correlatives is often to be rendered simply as: thus, tantum argenti quantum aeris, as much (of) silver as (of) copper.
- c. A frequent form of correlative is found in the ablative quō or quantō, by how much; eō or tantō, by so much, used with comparatives (rendered in English the . . . the): as,—

quo magis conaris, eo longius progrederis, the more you try, the farther on you get.

107. Certain relative and demonstrative adverbs are used correlatively as conjunctions: as,—

ut (rel.) ... ita, sic (dem.), as (while) ... so (yet).

tam (dem.) . . . quam (rel.), so (as) . . . as.

cum (rel.) . . . tum (dem.), both . . . and; while . . . so also; not only . . . but also.

Compare et... et, both ... and j aut (vel) ... aut (vel), either ... or; sive (seu) ... sive; utrum ... an, whether ... or.

6. VERBS.

I. INFLECTION OF THE VERB.

1. Voice, Mood, Tense.

- 108. The inflection of the Verb denotes Voice, Mood, Tense, Number, and Person.
 - a. The Voices are two: Active and Passive.
- b. The Moods are four: Indicative, Subjunctive, Imperative, and Infinitive.
 - c. The TENSES are six, viz. : -
 - 1. For continued action, Present, Imperfect, Future.
 - 2. For completed action, Perfect, Pluperfect, Future Perfect.
- d. Person and Number. There are separate terminations for each of the three Persons, First, Second, and Third, both in the singular and in the plural.

2. Noun and Adjective Forms.

- 109. The following Noun and Adjective forms are also included in the inflection of the Latin Verb:
 - a. Four Participles, viz. : -

Active: the Present and Future Participles.

Passive: the Perfect Participle and the Gerundive.

- b. The GERUND: this is in form a neuter noun of the second declension, used only in the oblique cases of the singular. A corresponding nominative is supplied by the Infinitive (see § 114. note).
 - c. The SUPINE: see §§ 71. a and 114. b.

3. Defective Forms.

- 110. Special forms for some of the tenses are wanting in certain parts of the verb:
 - a. The Subjunctive mood wants the Future and the Future Perfect.
- b. In the Passive voice in all moods the tenses of completed action are supplied by the Perfect Participle with the present, imperfect, and future of the verb esse. TO BE: as, occisus est. he was killed.

- c. The Imperative mood has only the Present and the Future.
- d. In the Infinitive mood the Present (active and passive) and the Perfect (active) only are formed by inflection. A Future in the active voice is formed by the Future Participle with the infinitive esse to be: as, amātūrus esse, to be going to love; in the passive, by the Former Supine with īrī (infin. pass. of īre, to go): as, amātum īrī, to be about to be loved. For the Perfect passive, see b above.

II. SIGNIFICATION OF THE FORMS OF THE VERB.

I. Voices.

- 111. The Active and Passive Voices in Latin generally correspond to the active and passive in English; but —
- a. The passive voice often has a reflexive meaning: as, induitur vestem, he puts on his (own) clothes; vertitur, he turns (himself).
- b. Many verbs are used only in the passive form, but with an active or reflexive meaning. These are called DEPONENTS (deponentia), i.e. verbs which have laid aside (deponere) the active form and the passive meaning (see § 135).
- c. Three verbs have a passive form in the tenses of completed action: audeo, ausus sum; gaudeo, gavisus sum; fido, fisus sum.

2. Moods.

112. The Moods are used as follows: ---

- a. The Indicative is used for *direct assertions* and *interrogations*: as, valēsne? valeō, are you well? I am well; and also in some other idiomatic forms of predication.
- b. The Subjunctive has many uses, as in commands, conditions, and various dependent clauses. It is often translated by the Indicative; often with the auxiliaries may, might, would, should; often by the Infinitive; or by the Imperative. Thus,—

eāmus, let us go.

cum vēnisset, when he had come.

adsum ut videam, I am here to see (that I may see).

tū nē quaesieris, do not thou inquire.

nēmo est qui ita existimet, there is no one who thinks so.

beātus sis, may you be blessed.

në abeat, let him not depart. quid morer, why should I delay?

sunt qui putent, there are some who think.

imperat ut scribam, he orders me to write (that I write).

nescio quid scribam, I know not what to write.

licet eas, you may go (it is permitted that you go). cave cadas, don't fall.

vereor ne eat, I fear he will go.

vereor ut eat, I fear he will not go.

si moneam audiat (pres.), if I should warn, he would hear.

si vocarem audiret (imperf.), if I were (now) calling, he would hear.

- c. The IMPERATIVE is used for exhortation, entreaty, or command; but the Subjunctive is often used instead.
- d. The Infinitive is used chiefly as an indeclinable noun, as the subject or object of another verb. In special uses it takes the place of the Indicative, and may be translated by that mood.

NOTE. - For the Syntax of the Moods, see §§ 264 ff.

3. Participles.

118. The Participles are used as follows:—

- a. The Present participle (ending in -ns) has commonly the same meaning as the English participle in -ING: as, vocans, calling; legentes, reading. (For its inflection, see egens, § 85.)
- b. 1. The Future participle (ending in -urus) is oftenest used to express what is likely or about to happen.

NOTE. — With the tenses of esse, TO BE, it forms the First Periphrastic conjugation: as, urbs est cāsūra, the city is about to fall.

- 2. It is also used, more rarely, to express purpose (see § 293. b): as, vēnit audītūrus, he came to hear (about to hear).
 - c. The Perfect participle (ending in tus, sus) has two uses: -
- 1. It is sometimes equivalent to the English Perfect Passive participle in -ED: as, tectus, sheltered; acceptus, accepted; ictus, having been struck; and often has simply an adjective meaning: as, acceptus, acceptable.
- 2. It is also used to form certain tenses of the passive (§ 110. b): as, vocātus est, he was (has been) called.

- Note. There is no Perfect Active or Present Passive participle in Latin. The perfect participle of deponents, however, is generally used in an active sense: as, secūtus, having followed. In the case of other verbs some different construction is used for these missing participles: as, cum vēnisset, having come (when he had come); equitātū praemīssō, having sent forward the cavalry (the cavalry having been sent forward); dum verberātur, while he is (being) struck.
- d. 1. The Gerundive (ending in -ndus) is often used as an adjective implying obligation or necessity (ought or must): as, audiendus est, he must be heard.

NOTE. — With the tenses of esse, TO BE, it forms the Second Periphrastic conjugation; as, deligendus erat, he ought to have been chosen.

- 2. In the oblique cases the Gerundive commonly has the same meaning as the Gerund (cf. § 114. a), though its construction is different. (For examples, see §§ 295 ff.)
- e. The Participles may all be used as simple adjectives; and the present and perfect are sometimes compared: as amāns, amantior, more fond; dilēctus, dilēctissimus, dearest.
- f. The Present and Perfect participles are (like adjectives) often used as nouns: as, regentes, rulers; mortui, the dead.
- g. As an adjective, the participle is often used predicatively to indicate some special circumstance or situation: as, moritūrī võs salūtāmus, we at the point of death (about to die) salute you.

4. Gerund and Supine.

114. The Gerund and Supine are used as follows:—

a. The GERUND is, in form, the neuter singular of the Gerundive. It is a verbal noun, corresponding in meaning to the English verbal noun in -ING (§ 295): as, loquendi causa, for the sake of speaking.

Note.—The Gerund is found only in the oblique cases. A corresponding nominative is supplied by the Infinitive: thus, scribere est ütile, writing (to write) is useful; but, are scribendi, the art of writing.

- b. The SUPINE is in form a noun of the fourth declension (§ 71. a), found only in the accusative, ending in -tum, -sum, and the ablative (or dative, probably both), ending in -tū, -sū. These are sometimes called the Former and the Latter Supine. The Former is used after verbs and the Latter after adjectives (§§ 302, 303): as,
 - 1. vēnit spectātum, he came to see.
 - 2. mīrābile dictū, wonderful to tell.

5. Tenses.

- 115. The tenses of the verb are of two classes, viz.:
 - I. Of continued action.
 - I. PRESENT: scribo, I am writing.
 - 2. IMPERFECT: scribebam, I was writing.
 - 3. FUTURE: scribam, I shall write.
 - 2. Of completed action.
 - 4. Perfect : scripsi, I have written, I wrote.
 - 5. PLUPERFECT; scripseram, I had written.
 - 6. FUTURE PERFECT: scripsero, I shall have written.

a. Tenses of the Indicative.

- a. The tenses of the Indicative have, in general, the same meaning as the corresponding tenses in English; but are in some cases distinguished differently in their use. Thus,—
- 1. The Future or Future Perfect is often used in subordinate clauses, where the English uses the Present: as, —

sī quid habēbō dabō, if I have (shall have) anything, I will give. cum vēnerō scrībam, when I come (shall have come), I will write.

2. The Present and Imperfect are often used to express continued action where the English uses tenses of completed action: as,—

iam diū aegrōtō, I have long been (and still am) sick.
iam diū aegrōtābam, I had long been (and still was) sick.

NOTE. — Here the Perfect, aegrōtāvī, would imply that I am now well; the Pluperfect, that I was well at the past time designated.

- b. The Imperfect is used to describe in past time a continued action or a condition of things: as, scribebat, he was writing; ardebat, it was on fire.
- c. The Perfect, having two separate uses, is divided into the Perfect Definite and the Perfect Historical (or Indefinite).
- 1. The Perfect Definite represents the action of the verb as completed in present time, and corresponds to the English (present-or compound-) perfect: as, scripsi, I have written.
- 2. The Perfect Historical narrates a simple act or state in past time without representing it as in progress. It corresponds to the English past or preterite: as, scripsit, he wrote; arait, it blazed up.

b. Tenses of the Subjunctive.

d. The tenses of the Subjunctive Mood are chiefly used in dependent clauses, following the rule for the Sequence of Tenses (see § 286); but have also special idiomatic uses (see Syntax).

III. PERSONAL ENDINGS.

116. Verbs have regular terminations for each of the three Persons, both singular and plural, active and passive. These are called Personal endings.

IV. FORMS OF THE VERB.

- 117. Every Latin verb-form (except the adjective and noun forms) is made up of two parts, viz.:—
 - 1. The STEM. This is either the root or a modification of it.
 - 2. The ENDING, consisting of
 - a. the signs of mood and tense.
 - b. the personal ending (see § 116).
- 118. The Verb-endings, as they are formed by the signs for mood and tense combined with personal endings, are exhibited in the following table:

ACTIVE.		PASSIV	E.
Indic.	Subj.	Indic.	Subj.
	Pres	ent.	•
Sing. 15	-m	-or	(-r
28	-8	-ris or -re	-ris or -re
3t 👸 : -	-t	-tur 🧸 🚉	-tur
Plur. Imus	-mus	-mur 2 gi z	j-mur
2tis 💆 🚉	-tis	-minī $\overset{6}{\overset{7}{\overset{7}{\overset{7}{\overset{7}{\overset{7}{\overset{7}{\overset{7}{$	-minī
3nt	-nt	-ntur	-ntur
	Imper	fect.	
Sing. 1ba-m	-re-m	-ba-r	-re-r
2. -bā-s	-rē-s	-bā-ris (-re)	-rē-ris(-re)
3. -ba-t	-re-t	-bā-tur	-rē-tur
Plur. 1bā-mus	-rē-mus	-bā-mur	-rē-mur
2. -bā-tis	-rē-tis	-bā-minī	-r ē-minī
3ba-nt	-re-nt	-ba-ntur	-re-ntur

1 These numerals refer to the four conjugations given later (see § 122).

ACTIVE. PASSIVE. INDICATIVE. · Future. INDICATIVE. 1. 11. 1. 11.1 III. IV. -po-t. -pe-tis(-te) Active. Sing. I. -b-ō -a-m -a-r 2. -bi-s -ē-ris (re) 3. -bi-t -e-t -ē-tur Plur. I. -bi-mus -bi-mur -ē-mus -ē-mur 2. -bi-tis -bi-minī -ē-tis -ē-minī 3. -bu-nt -e-nt -bu-ntur -e-ntur INDIC. INDIC. Subi. Perfect. Subi. Sing. I. -i sim -eri-m -tus(-ta, 2. -i-sti sīs -eri-s 3. -i-t -eri-t Plur. I. -i-mus sīmus -eri-mus 2. -i-stis sitis -eri-tis 3. -ēru-nt or-ēre -eri-nt sint Pluperfect. Sing. I. -era-m -isse-m essem -tus(-ta, 2. -erā-s -issē-s essõs 3. -era-t -isse-t esset Piur. I. -erā-mus essēmus -issē-mus (erāmus 2. -erā-tis essētis -issē-tis 3. -era-nt -isse-nt essent Future Perfect. Sing. I. -er-o 2. -eri-s 3. -eri-t Plur. I. -eri-mus 2. -eri-tis 3. -eri-nt IMPERATIVE. Present. Sing. 2. — Plur. 2. -te | Sing. 2. -re Plur. 2. -mini Future. 2. -tōte 2. -tor 3. -ntō 3. -tor 3. -ntor

¹ These numerals refer to the four conjugations given later (see § 122).

For convenience, a table of the Noun and Adjective forms of the verb is here added.

INFINITIVES.

Presre (Pres. stem)	I. II. IVrī; IIIī
Porfisse (Perf. stem)	-tus (-ta, -tum) esse
Futtūrus (-a, -um) esse	-tum îrī

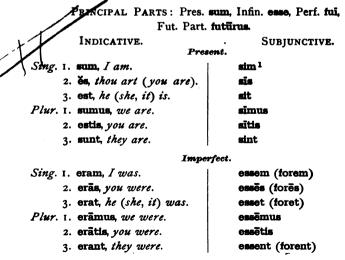
PARTICIPLES.

Presns, -ntis	
Perf	-tus, -ta, -tum
Futtūrus, -a, -um	Gerndus, -a, -um
GERUND.	Supine.
-ndi, -ndō, -ndum -ndō	-tum, -tū

THE VERB SUM.

119. The verb sum, be, is irregular and has no gerund or supine, and no participle but the future.

Its conjugation is given at the outset, as it is used in the inflection of all other verbs.



¹ No translations of the subjunctive are given, as all are misleading.

Future.

INDICATIVE.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

Sing. 1. ero, I shall be.

2. eris, you will be.

3. erit, he will be.

Plur. I. erimus, we shall be.

2. eritis, you will be.

3. erunt, they will be.

Perfect.

Sing. I. tui, I was (have been).

2. fuistī, you were.

3. fuit, he was.

Plur. I. fuimus, we were.

2. fuistis, you were.

3. fuerunt, fuere, they were.

fuerim

fueris

fuerit

fuerimus

fueritis

fuerint

Pluperfect.

Sing. 1. fueram, I had been.

2. tuerās, you had been.

3. fuerat, he had been.

Plur. 1. fueramus, we had been.

2. fuerātis, you had been.

3. fuerant, they had been.

fuissem

fuissēs

fuisset

fuissēmus

fuissētis

fuissent

Future Perfect.

Sing. I. tuero, I shall have been. Plur. I. tuerimus, we shall have been.

2. fueris, you will have been. 2. fueritis, you will have been.

3. fuerit, he will have been.

3. fuerint, they will have been.

IMPERATIVE.

Present. Sing. 2. es, be thou.

Plur. 2. este, be ye.

Future.

2. esto, thou shalt be.

2. estote, ye shall be.

3. esto, he shall be.

3. sunto, they shall be.

INFINITIVE.

Present. CESC, to be.

Perfect. fuisse, to have been.

Future. fore or futurus esse, to be about to be.

PARTICIPLE.

Future. futurus, -a, -um, about to be.

- a. The present participle appears in ab-sēns, prae-sēns; and as ēns in pot-ēns.
 - b. For essem, etc., forem, fores, etc., are often used.
- 120. The verb sum appears in numerous compounds, which are treated under Irregular Verbs (§ 137)

The Three Stems

- 121. The parts of the Latin verb are formed upon three different stems (partly real and partly supposed), called the Present, the Perfect, and the Supine Stem.
- a. The tenses of continued action, both active and passive, together with the Gerund and Gerundive, are formed upon the PRESENT STEM, and collectively are called the Present System.
- b. The tenses of completed action in the active voice are formed upon the Perfect Stem, and are called the Perfect System.
- c. The Perfect and Future Participles and the Supine are formed upon the SUPINE STEM, and are called the Supine System.

V. REGULAR VERBS.

- 122. There are four regular forms of Present Stems ending respectively in a. 5. 5. i. With this difference most other differences of conjugation coincide.
- a. Verbs are accordingly classed in Four Regular Conjugations, distinguished by the stem-vowel which appears before -re in the Present Infinitive Active.
- b. The PRINCIPAL PARTS of a verb, which determine its conjugation throughout, are
 - 1. The Present Indicative) showing the present stem and
 - 2. The Present Infinitive \(\) the conjugation.
 - 3. The Perfect Indicative, showing the perfect stem.
 - 4. The Supine, showing the supine stem.

c. The regular forms of the conjugations are seen in the following:

First: Active, amo, amare, amavi, amatum, love.

Passive, amor, amārī, amātus.

Present stem ama-, Perfect stem amav-, Supine stem amat-.

Second: Active, deleo, delevi, deletum, blot out.

Passive, dēleor, dēlēri, dēlētus.

Present stem dele-, Perfect stem delev-, Supine stem delet-.

Third: Active, tego, tegere, texi, tectum, cover.

Passive, tegor, tegi, tēctus.

ROOT TEG, Present stem tege-, Perfect stem tex-, Supine stem tect-.

Fourth: Active, audiō, audire, audivi, auditum, hear.

Passive, audior, audirī, auditus.

Present stem audit. Perfect stem audiv., Supine stem audit.

In the Second conjugation, the characteristic **\(\bar{e}\)**- rarely appears in the perfect and supine: the type of this conjugation is, therefore —

Second: Active, moneo, monere, monui, monitum, warn.

Passive, moneor, moneri, monitus.

- d. In many verbs the principal parts take forms belonging to two or more different conjugations: as,—
 - I, 2, domō, domāre, domui, domitum, subdue.
 - 2, 3, maneō, manēre, mānsī, mānsum, remain.
 - 3, 4, petō, petĕre, petīvī, petītum, seek.
 - 4, 3, vinciō, vincīre, vinxī, vinctum, bind.

Such verbs are referred to the conjugation to which the Present stem conforms.

1. Present Stem.

128. The Present Stem is formed from the Root in regular verbs in several ways, as appears in dictionaries.

2. Perfect Stem.

124. The Perfect Stem is formed as follows:—

a. The suffix v (u) is added to the present stem: as, vocā-v-ī, audī-v-ī; or to the root: as, son-u-ī (son-āre), mon-u-ī (mon-ēre, mon treated as a root).

Note. — In a few verbs the vowel of the root is transposed and lengthened (see $\S 9. d$): as, strā-v-ī (ster-nō), sprō-v-ī (sper-nō).

- b. The suffix s is added to the root: as, carp-s-i (carp-ō), tēx-i (for teg-s-i, teg-ō).
- c. The root is reduplicated by prefixing the first consonant generally with **ĕ**, sometimes with the root-vowel : as, ce-cid-ī (cad-ō), to-tond-ī (tond-eō).

NOTE. — In fid-ī (for † fe-fid-ī, find-ō), scid-ī (for † sci-scid-ī, scindō), the reduplication has been lost, leaving merely the root.

- d. The root-vowel is lengthened: as, eg-i (ag-o), fug-i (fug-i-o).
- e. The root itself is used as the perfect stem: as, vert-ī (vert-ō), solv-ī (solv-ō, solv treated as a root).
- f. Sometimes the perfect is formed from a lost or imaginary stem: as, peti-v-i (as if from † peti-ō, † peti-re, pet-ō).

3. Supine Stem.

- 125. The Supine Stem is formed by adding to (or, by a phonetic change, s-):
 - a. To the present stem: as, amā-t-um, dēlē-t-um, audī-t-um.
- b. To the root, with or without i: cap-t-um (cap-io), moni-t-um (mon-eo, mon treated as a root), cas-um (for cad-t-um).
 - 126. Omitted in this edition.

4. Synopsis of the Verb.

127. The following synopsis shows the forms of the verbs arranged according to the several stems. Amō, a regular verb of the first conjugation, is taken as a type.

PRESENT STEM, ama-; PERFECT STEM, amav-; SUPINE STEM, amat-.

ACTIVE.	SUB.	am e-m	imperf. am ā-bam am ā-rem	am ā-bō	PERF. amāv-i amāv-erim	PLUPERF. am āv-e ram am āv-issem	fut. Perf. am āv-e r ō
VC	Inf.	am ā-re	<u> </u>	am āt-ūrus	am āv-isse	•••••	••••
	Part.	am ā-ns		esse amāt-ūrus			
	IND.	am-or	am ā-bar	am ā-bor	am āt-us s ur	n — eram	— erō
zi			am ā-rer	:	am āt-us sin	ı — essem	
PASSIVE.	IMP. 2.	am ā-re		am ā-tor			
PA	Inf.	am ā-ri	8	ım ä-tum i ri	am āt-us ess	e	
	PART.		Ger.	am a-ndus	am āt-us		

- 128. Special Forms.—a. In tenses formed upon the perfect stem, v between two vowels is often lost. Thus,—
- I. Perfects in -āvī, -ēvī, -ōvī often contract the two vowels into ā, ē, ō respectively: as, amāsse for amāvisse; amārim for amāverim; consuērat for consuēverat; flēstis for flēvistis. So where the v is a part of the present stem: as, commorat for commoverat.
- Perfects in -ivi regularly omit v, but rarely contract the vowels except before st and ss: as, audieram for audiveram; audisse for audivisse: audisti for audivisti; abiit for abivit.
- b. In many forms from the perfect stem, is, iss, sis are lost in like manner when s would be repeated: as, dixti for dixisti (x = cs).
- c. Four verbs, dicō, dūcō, faciō, ferō, with their compounds, drop the vowel-termination in the imperative, making dic, dūc, făc, făr; but compounds in -ficiō retain it: as, cōnfice (cōn-ficio).
- d. For the imperative of scio, the future form scito is always used in the singular, and scitote usually in the plural.
 - e. The following ancient forms are chiefly found in poetry: -
 - i. In the fourth conjugation -ibam, -ibō for -iebam, -iam (future).
 - 2. In the present subjunctive -im: as in duim (for dem).
- 3. In the perfect subjunctive and future perfect -sim, -sō: as, faxim, faxō (= fēcerō, etc.); ausim (= ausus sim).
 - 4. In the passive infinitive -ier: as, irier for iri; agier for agi.

FIRST CONJUGATION. - ACTIVE VOICE,

PRINCIPAL PARTS: Pres. amo, Infin. amare, Perf. amavi, Supine amatum.

INDICATIVE.

Subjunctive.

Present.

amō, I love.

amās, thou lovest (you love).

amat, he (she, it) loves.

amāmus, we love.

amātis, you love.

amant, they love.

amem amēs amet amēmus amētis ament

Imperfect.

amābam, I loved. amābās, you loved. amābat, he loved. amābāmus, we loved. amābātis, you loved. amābant, they loved. amārēs amārēs amāret amārēmus amārētis amārent

Future.

amābō, I shall love. amābis, you will love. amābit, he will love. amābitus, we shall love. amābitus, you will love. amābunt, they will love.

Perfect.

amāvī, I loved.
amāvīstī, you loved.
amāvīst, he loved.
amāvīstus, we loved.
amāvīstus, you loved.
amāvērunt (-ēre), they loved.

amāverim amāveris amāverit amāverimus amāveritis amāverint INDICATIVE.

amāveram, I had loved. amāverās, you had loved. amāverat, he had loved. amāverāmus, we had loved. amāverātis, you had loved.

amāverant, they had loved.

Subjunctive.

Pluperfect.

amāvissem amāvisset amāvisset amāvissēmus amāvissētis amāvissent

Future Perfect.

SINGULAR.

amāverō, I shall have loved. amāveris, you will have loved. amāverit, he will have loved. PLURAL.

amāveritus, we shall have loved. amāveritis, you will have loved. amāverint, they will have loved.

IMPERATIVE.

Pres. 2. ama, love thou.

am**āte**, *love ye.*

Fut. 2. amāto, thou shalt love.

amatote, ye shall love. amanto, they shall love.

3. amāto, he shall love.

INFINITIVE.

Present. amare, to love.

Perfect. amavisse or amasse, to have loved.

Future. amaturus esse, to be about to love.

PARTICIPLES.

Present. amans, antis, loving.

Future. amaturus, -a, -um, about to love.

GERUND.

GEN. amandi, of loving.

DAT. amando, for loving.

Acc. amandum, loving.

ABL. amando, by loving.

SUPINE.

Former. amātum Latter. amātū, to love.

129. The so-called Periphrastic conjugations are formed by combining the tenses of esse with the Future Active Participle and with the Gerundive: as,—

First Periphrastic Conjugation.

•				
Indicative.	Subjunctive.			
Present. amaturus sum, I am al	bout to love. — sim			
Imperf. amātūrus eram, I was	about to love. —— essem			
Future. amātūrus erō, I shall b	e about to love.			
Perfect. amaturus fui, I was ab	out, etc. — fuerim			
Pluperf. amātūrus fueram, I had	d been about, etc. —— fuissem			
Fut. Perf. amaturus fuero, I shall	l have been about, etc.			
Infinitive: Pres. amātūrus	s esse Perf. amātūrus fuisse			
Second Periphra	stic Conjugation.			
Indicative.	Subjunctive.			
Present. amandus sum, I am to	•			
Imperf. amandus eram, I was				
Future. amandus ero, I shall e	he [worthy] to he loyed.			
Perfect. amandus fui, I was to				
Pluperf. amandus fueram, I had	i been, etc. — fuissem			
Fut. Perf. amandus fuero, I shall				
<u> </u>	esse Perf. amandus fuisse			
FIRST CONJUGATION	N PASSIVE VOICE.			
PRINCIPAL PARTS: Pres. amo	r, Infin. amārī, Perf. amātus sum.			
Indicative.	Subjunctive.			
Pre	sent.			
amor, I am loved.	amer			
am āris (-re), you are loved.	am ēris (-re)			
am ātur, he i s loved.	am ētur			
am āmur , we are loved.	am ēmu r			
am āminī, you are loved.	am ēminī			
amantur, they are loved.	am entur			
F	and a			
Imperfect.				
amābar, I was loved. amābāris (-re), you were loved.	amārer			
amābātur, he was loved.	am ārēris (-re)			
amābāmur, we were loved.	am ārēmur			
amābāminī, you were loved.	am ārēmini			
amābantur, they were loved. amārentur				

Future.

INDICATIVE.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

amābor, I shall be loved.
amāberis (-re), you will be loved.
amābitur, he will be loved.
amābimur, we shall be loved.
amābimini, you will be loved.
amābuntur, they will be loved.

Perfect.

amātus sum, I was loved. amātus est, pou were loved. amātus est, he was loved. amātī sumus, we were loved. amātī estis, you were loved. amātī sunt, they were loved. amātus sim amātus sis amātus sit amātī simus amātī sitis amātī sint

Pluperfect.

amātus eram, I had been loved. amātus erās, you had been loved. amātus erat, he had been loved. amātī erāmus, we had been loved. amātī erātis, you had been loved. amātī erant, they had been loved. amātus essem amātus esses amātus esset amātī essēmus amātī essētis amātī essent

Future Perfect.

SINGULAR.

amātus **erō, I** shall have been loved. amātus **eris,** you will have, etc. amātus **erit**, he will have, etc. PLURAL.

amātī erimus, we shall have, etc. amātī eritis, you will have, etc. amātī erunt, they will have, etc.

IMPERATIVE.

Pres. 2. amare, be thou loved.

amāmini, be ye loved.

Fut. 2. amator, thou shalt beloved.

3. amator, he shall be loved. amantor, they shall be loved.

INFINITIVE.

Present. amari, to be loved.

Perfect. amatus esse, to have been loved.

Future. amatum iri (amatus fore), to be about to be loved.

PARTICIPLES.

Perfect. amatus, loved (beloved, or having been loved).
Future. (Gerundive.) amandus, -a, -um, to-be-loved (lovely).

180. There are about 360 simple verbs of this conjugation, most of them formed directly on a noun- or adjective-stem: as, armo, arm (arma, arms); caeco, to blind (caecus, blind); exsulo, be an exile (exsul, an exile) (§ 166. a). Their conjugation is usually regular, like amo; though of many only a few forms are found in use.

SECOND CONJUGATION.

PRINCIPAL PARTS: Active, moneo, monere, monui, monitum; Passive, moneor, moneri, monitus sum.

-			_	_	
A	CT	ГΤ	v	к	

SUBJ.

INDIC.

PASSIVE.

SUBJ.

INDIC.

Fresent.				
moneō, I warn.		moneor	monear	
mon ēs , you warn.	moneas	mon ēris (-re)	mon eāris(-re)	
monet, he warns.	moneat	mon ētur	mon eātur	
mon ēmus	mon eāmus	mon ēmur	mon eāmur	
mon ētis	mon eātis	mon ēmini	mon eāmini	
monent	moneant	mon entur	moneantur	

Imperfect.

mon ëbam	mon ërem	mon ēbar	mon ërer
mon ēbās	mon ērēs	mon ēbāris (-re)	mon ērēris (-re)
mon ēbat	mon ëret	mon ēbātur	mon ërëtur
mon ēbāmus	mon ērēmus	mon ēbāmur	mon ërëmur
mon ēbātis	mon ērētis	mon ëbāmini	mon ērēmini
mon ëbant	mon ërent	mon ēbantur	mon ërentur

Future.

mon ēbō	mon ēbor
mon ēbis	mon ēberis (-re)
mon ēbi t	mon ēbitu r
mon ēbimus	mon ēbimu r
mon ēbitis	mon ëbimini
mon ēbunt	mon ēbuntur

C1		E

PASSIVE.

	- and			
Subj.	INDIC.	Subj.		
Per	rfect.			
monu erim	monitus sum	monitus sim		
monu eris	monitus es	monitus sīs		
monu erit	monitus est	monitus sit		
monu erimus	monitī sumus	monitī sīmus		
monueritis	monitī estis	monitī sītis		
monu erint	monitī sunt	monitī sint		
	monuerim monueris monuerit monuerimus monueritis	monuerim monitus sum monueris monitus es monuerit monitus est monuerimus monueritis monitī sumus monueritis		

Pluperfect.

		- •	
monueram	monu issem	monitus eram	monitus essem
monu erās	monu issēs	monitus erās	monitus essēs
monuerat	monuisset	monitus erat	monitus esset
monu erāmus	monu issēmus	monitī erāmus	monitī essēmus
monu erātis	monu issētis	monitī erātis	monitī essētis
monuerant	monuissent	monitī erant	monitī essent

Future -Perfect.

monu erō	, monitus erō
monu eris	monitus eris
monu erit	monitus erit
monu erimus	monitī erimus
monu eritis	monitī eritis
monuerint	monitī erunt

IMPERATIVE.

SING.	PLUR.	SING.	PLUR.
Pres. 2. monē	mon ēte	monēre	mon ēminī
Fut. 2. monētō	mon ētōte	mon ētor	
3. mon ētō	mon entō	monētor	mon entor

INFINITIVE.

Pres. monëre	mon ēri
Perf. monuisse	monitus esse
Fut. moniturus esse	monitum īrī (monitus fore)

PARTICIPLES.

Pres.	mon ēns	Perf.	monitus
Fut.	mon itūrus	Ger.	mon endus

GERUND: monendi, -dō, -dum, -dō SUPINE: monitum, monitu

tegētis

tegent

181. There are nearly 120 simple verbs of this conjugation, most of them denominative verbs of condition, having a corresponding noun and adjective from the same root, and an inceptive in -sco (§ 167. a): as, caleo, be warm; calor, warmth; calidus, warm; calesco, grow warm; timeo, fear; timor, fear; timidus, timid.

Most verbs of this conjugation form their perfect and supine like moneo. The following have -evi and -etum: deleo, destroy; fleo, weep; neo, spin; vieo, plat; and compounds of -pleo, fill; -oleo, grow.

THIRD CONJUGATION.

Principal Parts: Active, tego, tegere, texi, tectum;					
Passive, tegor, tegi, tēctus sum.					
ACTI	VE.	PASSIVE.			
Indic.	Subj.	Indic.	Subj.		
	Present.				
tegō, I cover.	tegam	tegor	tegar		
teg is, you cover.	teg ās	teg eris(-re)	teg āris (-re)		
tegit, he covers.	teg at	tegitur	teg ātur		
teg imus	teg āmus	teg imur	teg āmur		
teg itis	teg ātis	teg imini	teg āmini		
teg unt	teg ant	teguntur	teg antur		
	Impe	erfect.			
teg ēbam	tegerem	teg ëbar	teg ere r		
teg ēbās	tegerēs	tegēbāris (-re)	teg erēris (-re)		
teg ëbat	teg eret	teg ēbātur	teg erētur		
teg ēbāmus	teg erēmus	teg ēbāmur	teg erēmur		
teg ēbātis	teg erētis	teg ēbāminī	teg erēmini		
teg ēbant	tegerent	teg ēbantur	teg erentur		
Future.					
tegam		tegar			
teg ēs		teg ēris (-r e)			
teg et		teg ētur			
teg ēmus		teg ëm ur			

tegentur

ACTIVE.		PASSIVE.	
Indic.	Subj.	INDIC.	Subj.
	Per	fect.	
tēxī	tēxerim	tēctus sum	tēctus sim
tēx istī	tēx eris	tēctus es	tēctus sīs
tēxit	tēx erit	tēctus est	tēctus sit
tēx imus	tēx erimus	tēctī sumus	tēctī sīmus
tēx istis	tēx eritis	tēctī estis	tēctī sītis
tēx ērunt (-re)	tēx erint	tēctī sunt	tēctī sint
	Plup	erfect.	
tēx eram	tēx issem	tēctus eram	tēctus essem
tēx erās	tēx issēs	tēctus erās	tēctus essēs
tēx era t	tēx isset	tēctus erat	tēctus esset
tēx erāmus	tēxi ssē mus	tēctī erāmus	tēctī essēmu s
tēx erātis	tēx issētis	tēctī erātis	tēctī essētis
tēx erant	tēx isse nt	tēctī erant	tēctī essent
•	Future	Perfect.	
tēx erō		tēctus erō	
tēx eris		.tēctus eris	
tēx erit	•	tēctus erit	
tēx erimus		tēctī erimus	
tēx eritis		tēctī eritis	
tēx erint		tēctī erunt	
	Imper	ATIVE.	
SING.	PLUR.	SING.	PLUR.
Pres. 2. tege, cover	r. teg ite	teg ere	teg iminī
Fut. 2. tegito	tegit ōte	tegitor	
3. teg itō	tegun tō	tegitor	teguntor
	Infin	IITIVE.	
Pres. tegere		tegī	
Perf. tēxisse		tēctus esse	
Fut. tēctūru	s esse	tēctum īrī (tēc	ctus fore)
PARTICIPLES.			

Pres. tegens Perf. tectus

Fut. tēctūrus Ger. tegendus (-undus)

GERUND: tegendi, -do, -dum, -do Supine: tectum, tectu

VERBS IN -IO.

Verbs of the third conjugation in -15 have certain forms of the present stem like the fourth conjugation. They retain the 1 of the stem before a, 5, u, and 5, but lose it elsewhere except in the future and in the participle and gerund. They are conjugated as follows:—

Principal Parts: captō, capĕre, cēpī, captum; captor, capī, captus sum.

ACTIVE.		PASSIVE.			
Indic.	Subj.	Indic.	Subj.		
Present.					
capio, I take.	capiam	capior	capiar		
cap is, you take.	cap iās	caperis (-re)	capi āris (-re)		
cap it, he takes .	cap iat	capitur	cap iātur		
cap imus	capi āmus	capimur	cap iāmur		
cap itis	cap iātis	cap imini	cap iāminī		
capiunt	cap iant	capiuntur	capiantur		
	Impe	rfect.			
cap iēbam		cap iēbar	caperer		
		ture.	•		
cap iam		cap iar	•		
cap iës	•	capiai			
capiet, etc.		cap iēris (-re) cap iētur , etc.			
capion cic.		capaosaa, cac.			
	Per	rfect.			
c ē p ī	cēp erim	captus sum	captus sim		
•	Plup	erfect.			
cēp eram	cēp issem	captus eram	captus essem		
	Future	Perfect.			
cēp erō		captus erō			
Imperative.					
SING.	PLUR.	sing.	PLUR.		
Pres. 2. cape	capite	capere	cap iminī		
Fut. 2. capito	cap itōte	capitor	T :		
3. cap itō	cap iunto	capitor	capiuntor		
· -	-	• -	-		

INFINITIVE.

SING.

PLUR.

Pres. capere Perf. cēpisse capi

Fut. capturus esse

captus esse cap**tum iri**

PARTICIPLES.

Pres. cap**iēns**

Perf. captus Ger. capiendus

Fut. capturus

GERUND: capiendi, -dō, -dum, -dō SUPINE: captum, -tu

INDIC.

182. List of verbs omitted in this edition, see larger grammar.

FOURTH CONJUGATION.

PRINCIPAL PARTS: Active, audio, audire, audivi, auditum; Passive, audior, audiri, auditus sum.

ACTIVE.

PASSIVE.

SUBI.

audirentur

INDIC.	Subi.		
	•	Presen	ı
audiō, I hear.	au diam	8	1
audis, you hear.	aud iās	1	1
audit, he hears.	aud iat	1	11
aud īmus	aud iāmus	a	ı
aud ītis	aud iātis	a	ı
audiunt	aud iant	a	ı
		Imperf	e

udior audiar audiāris (-re) ud**iris** (-re) uditur audiātur aud**iām**ur udimur ud**imini** audiāminī udiuntur audiantur

ct. andīrem aud**iēbar**

aud**iēbam** audi**ēbās** audīr**ēs** audiret audiābat aud**iēbāmus** aud**irēmus** audīr**ētis** audiēbātis aud**iēbant** audirent

audirer audiēbāris (-re) audirēris (-re) audiēbātur audirētur aud**iēbāmu**r audīrēmur aud**iēbāmi**nī aud**irēmin**ī

Future.

audiam audi**õs** audiet audiāmus aud**iātis** audient

audiar aud**iēris (-re**) audi**ētu**r aud**iēmu**r aud**iēminī** aud**ient**ur

aud**iē**bantur

- ACTIVE.		PASSIVE.			
	INDIC.	Subj.	Indic.	Subj.	
			fect.		
	audīv ī	audīv erim	audītus sum	audītus sim	
	audīv istī	audīv eris	audītus es	audītus sīs	
	audīv it	audīv erit	audītus est	audītus sit	
	audīv imus	audīv erimus	audītī sumus	audītī sīmus	
	audīv istis	audīv eritis	audītī estis	audītī sītis	
	audīv ērunt (-re)	audīv erint	audītī sunt	audītī sint	
		Plupe	rfect		
	audīv eram	audīv issem	audītus eram	audītus essem	
	audīv erās	audīv issēs	audītus erās	audītus essēs	
	audīv erat	audīv isset	audītus erat	audītus esset	
	audīv erāmus	audīv issēmus	audītī erāmus	audītī essēmu	
	audīv erātis	audīvi ssētis	audītī erātis	audītī essētis	
	audīv erant	audīv issent	audītī erant	audītī essent	
		Future	Perfect.		
	audīv erō		audītus erō		
	audīv eris		audītus eris		
	audīv erit		audītus erit		
	audīv erimus		audītī erimus		
	audīv eritis		audītī eritis		
	audīv erint		audītī erunt		
	Imperative.				
	SING.	PLUR.	SING.	PLUR.	
	Pres. 2. audī	aud ite	aud īre	aud īminī	
	Fut. 2. audītō	aud itōte	aud ito r		
	3. audītō	aud iunto	aud itor	audi untor	
	5				

INFINITIVE.

Pres. audire
Perf. audivisse

aud**irī** aud**ītus esse**

Fut. auditūrus esse

audītum īrī (audītus fore)

PARTICIPLES.

Pres. audiens
Fut. auditūrus

Perf. auditus Ger. audiendus

GERUND: audiendi, -dō, -dum, -dō SUPINE: auditum, auditū

183. There are — besides a few deponents and some regular derivatives in -ŭriō, as ēsuriō, be hungry (cf. § 167. e) — about 60 verbs of this conjugation, a large proportion of them being descriptive verbs.

Parallel Forms.

184. Many verbs have more than one set of forms, of which only one is generally found in classic use: as, — lavo, lavore or lavore, wash.

DEPONENT VERBS.

185. Deponent Verbs have the form of the Passive Voice, with an active or reflexive signification: as,—

(ist conj. miror, mirāri, mirātus, admire. (2d conj. vereor, verēri, veritus, fear. 3d conj. sequor, sequi, secūtūs, follow. 4th conj. partior, partiri, partitus, share.

INDICATIVE.

		I.	II.	III.	IV.
(Pres.	miror	vereor	sequor	partior
١		mīr āris (-re)	ver ēris (-re)	sequeris (-re)	part iris (-re)
		mīr ātur	ver ētur	sequitur	part itur
		mīr āmur	ver ëmur	sequ imur	part īmur
		mīr āmini	ver ēminī	s equ imini	part imini
		mīr antur	ver entur	secuntur	parti untur
	Impf.	mī rābar	ver ēbar	sequ ēbar	part iēbar
	Fut.	mīr ābor	ver ēbor	sequar	partiar
	Perf.	mīr ātus sum	ver itus sum	sec ūtus sum	part itus sum
	Plup.	mīr ātus eram	ver itus eram	sec ūtus eram	part itus eram
	F. P.	mīr ātus erō	ver itus erō	sec utus ero	part itus erō

SUBJUNCTIVE.

<i>Pres.</i> mīr er	ve rear	sequ ar	part iar
<i>Impf.</i> mīr ārer	ver ërer	sequ erer	part irer
Perf. mīrātus sim	ver itus sim	sec ūtus sim	part itus sim
Plup. mīrātus essem	veritus essem	sec utus essem	partitus essem

IMPERATIVE.

I.	II.	III.	IV.
mīrāre, -ātor, etc.	ver ēre, -ēt or	sequere, -itor	partire, -itor

INFINITIVE.

Pres.	mīr āri	ver ē rī	sequ i	part iri
Perf.	mīr ātus esse	veritus esse	sec utus esse	part itus esse
Fut.	mīr ātūrus ess	veritūrus esse	secuturus esse	partitūrus esse

PARTICIPLES.

Pres. mīr āns	ver ēns	sequ ēns	part iēns
Fut. mīrātūrus	ver itūrus	sec ūtūrus	part itūrus
Perf. mīrātus	veri tus	sec ūtus	part itus
Ger. mirandus	ver endus	sequ endus	part iendus

GERUND.

mīrandī, -ō, etc. verendī, etc. sequendī, etc. partiendī, etc.

SUPINE.

mīrātum, -tū veritum, -tū secūtum, -tū partītum, -tū

- a. Deponents have the participles of both voices: as,—
 sequens, following.
 secutus, having followed.
 sequendus, to-be-followed.
- 'b.: The perfect participle generally has an active sense, but in verbs otherwise deponent it is often passive: as, mercātus, bought; adeptus, gained (or having gained).
- c. The future infinitive is always in the active form: thus, sequor has secuturus esse (not secutum iri).
- d. The gerundive, being passive in meaning, is found only in transitive verbs, or neuter verbs used impersonally: as, —

hoc confitendum est, this must be acknowledged. moriendum est omnibus, all must die.

- c. Most deponents are neuter or reflexive in meaning.
- f. Some deponents are occasionally used in a passive sense: as, criminor, I accuse, or I am accused.
- g. About twenty verbs are, with an active meaning, found in both active and passive forms: as, mereo or mereor, I deserve.
- h. More than half of all deponents are of the First Conjugation, and all of these are regular.

Semi-Deponents.

186. A few verbs having no perfect stem are regular in the present, but appear in the tenses of completed action as deponents. These are called *semi-deponents* or neuter passives. They are—

audeō, audēre, ausus, *dare*. gaudēō, gaudēre, gāvīsus, *rejoice*. fidō, fidĕre, fisus, *trust*. soleō, solēre, solitus, *be wont*.

IRREGULAR VERBS.

187. Several verbs add some of the personal endings of the present system directly to the root, or combine two verbs in their inflection. These are called Irregular Verbs. They are sum, volō, ferō, edō, queō, eō, fiō, and their compounds.

Sum has already been inflected in § 119.

a. Sum is compounded without any change of inflection with the prepositions ab, ad, de, in, inter, ob, prae, pro (prod), sub, super.

In the compound prosum, pro retains its original d before e. Thus, —

	INDIC.	Subj.
Pres.	prōsum, I help.	prōsim
	prodes	prōsis
	prodest	prösit
	prōsumus	prõsimus
	prōdestis	prösitis
	prosunt	prösint
Impf.	proderam, I was helping.	prödessem
Fut	prodero I shall held	

Perf. profui, I helped. profuerim
Plup. profueram, I had helped. profuissem

F. P. profuero, I shall have helped.

IMPER. prodesto, etc.

Infin. Pres. prodesse Perf. profuisse Fut. profuturus esse

PART. profuturus, about to help.

b. Sum is also compounded with the adjective potis, or pote, able, making the verb possum. This is inflected as follows:-

INDICATIVE. SUBJUNCTIVE. possum, I can. possim potes, you can. possis potest, he can. possit possumus, we can. possimus potestis, you can. possītis possunt, they can. possint Impf. poteram, I could. possem potero, I shall be able. Perf. potui, I could. potuerim Plup. potueram potuissem F. P. potuero, I shall have been able. Perf. potuisse

INFIN. Pres. posse

PART. potens (adj.), powerful.

188. Volo and its compounds are inflected as follows:

(volo, velle, volui, wish

nolo (for ne volo), nolle, nolui, be unwilling.

mālo (for magis or mage volo), mālle, mālui, wish rather, prefer.

Present.

		_,,,,,			
INDIC.	Subj.	INDIC.	Subj.	INDIC.	Subj.
volō	velim	nōlō	nōlim	mālō	mālim
vis	velis	nõn v is	n o lis	māvis	mālis
wolt (vult)	velit	nōnvolt	nölit	māvolt	mällt
volumus voltis(vul-)	velimus velitis	nõlumus nõnvultis	nõlimus nõlitis	mālumus māvultis	mālīmus mālītis
volunt	velint	nölunt	nõlint	mālunt	mālint
		Impe	rfect.		
volēbam	vellem	nölēbam	$n\overline{o}$ llem	mālēbam	mällem
		Fut	ure.		
volam, volē	is, etc.	nölam, nöl	ēs, etc.	mālam, mi	ālēs, etc.
Perfect.					
volui	voluerim	nõlui	nõluerim	mālui	mäluerim
Pluperfect.					
volueram	voluissem	nõlueram	nöluissem	mālueram	mäluissem

Future Perfect.

voluero noluero maluero

IMPERATIVE.

Pres. noli nolite, do not.

Fut: nolito nolitote, thou shalt not, ye shall not.

nölitö

INFINITIVE.

velle voluisse nõlle nõluisse mälle mäluisse

PARTICIPLES.

Pres. volens, willing. nolens, unwilling.

GERUND: volendi (late)

189. Ferō, ferre, tŭli, lātum, bear.

ACTIVE.

SUBI. INDIC. INDIC. SUBI. Pres. fero ferar feram feror fers ferās ferris ferāris (-re) fert. ferat fertur ferātur ferimus ferāmus ferimur ferāmur fertis ferātis ferimini ferāminī

PASSIVE.

ferunt ferant feruntur ferantur

Impf. ferebam ferrem ferebar ferrer

Fut. feram ferar

 Perf.
 tŭli
 tulerim
 lātus sum
 lātus sim

 Plup.
 tuleram
 tulissem
 lātus eram
 lātus eram

F. P. tulero lātus ero

IMPERATIVE.

 Pres. fer
 ferre
 ferimini

 Fut. fertō
 fertor

 fertō
 feruntō
 fertor
 feruntor

INFINITIVE.

Pres. ferre ferri latus esse

Fut. lātūrus esse lātum irī (lātus fore)

PARTICIPLES.

Pres.ferēnsPerf.lātusFut.lātūrusGer.ferendus

GERUND: ferendi, -do, -dum, -do Supine: latum, -tu

140. Edő, edere, ödi, ösum, eat, is regular of the third conjugation, but has also some forms directly from the root (ED) without the characteristic vowel. These are in full-faced type.

ACTIVE.		PASSIVE.		
INDIC.	Subj.	INDIC.	Subj.	
edō	edam (edim)	edor	edar	
edis (ēs)	edās (edīs)	ederis (-re)	edāris (-re)	
edit (ëst)	edat (edit)	editur (estur)		
` '	` ' .	• •		
edimus	edāmus (edimus)	edimur	edāmur	
, ,	edātis (edītis)		edāminī	
edunt	edant (edint)	eduntu r	edantur	
	Impe			
edēbam	ederem (ēssem)	edēb ar	ederer	
edēb ās	ederēs (ēssēs)	edēbāris (-re)	edereris (-re)	
edēbat	ederet (ēsset)	edebatur	ederētur (ēssētur)	
	Futi			
edam		edar		
edēs		edēris		
edet, <i>etc</i> .		edētur, <i>etc</i> .		
	Perj			
ēdī	ēderim	ēsus sum	ēsus sim	
	Plupe	rfect.		
ēderam	ēdissem	į ēsus eram	ēsus essem	
	Future .	Perfect.		
ēderō		ēsus erō		
	Imper	ATIVE.		
ede (ēs)	edite (ēste)	edere	ediminī	
	editōte (ēstōte)	editor	•	
editō (ēstō)		editor	eduntor	
Infinitive.				
edere (esse)		edī		
ēdisse		ēsus esse		
ēsūrus esse		ēsum īrī		
	Partic			
Pres.	edēns	_	sus	
Fut.	ēsūrus	_	dendus	
	'	•	•	
GERUND: edendī, -dō, -dum, -dō SUPINE: ēsum, -sū				

§ 141.]

Eō, ire, ivi, itum, go.

INDICATIVE.

eō. is. it

imus, itis, eunt

ībam, ībās, ībat ībāmus, ībātis, ībant

ībō, ībis, ībit

Future. ībimus, ībitis, ībunt

Perfect. ivi (ii)

iveram (ieram) Pluperf.

Fut. Perf. ivero (iero)

SUBJUNCTIVE.

eam, eas, eat

eāmus, eātis, eant irem, irēs, iret

īrēmus, īrētis, īrent

iverim (ierim)

ivissem (issem)

IMPERATIVE.

i, ite, itō, itō, itōte, euntō

INFINITIVE.

Pres. ire

Perf. ivisse(isse) Fut. iturus esse

PARTICIPLES.

Pres. iens. euntis Fut. itūrus Ger. eundum

GERUND: eundi, -do, -dum, -do SUPINE: itum, itū a. The compounds adeo, approach, ineo, enter, and some others,

are transitive. They are inflected as follows in the passive: -

INDICATIVE

SUBJUNCTIVE.

	INDICALITY D.				
Pres.	adeor	Impf.	adībar		
	adīris	Fut.	adibor		
	aditur	Perf.	aditus sum		
	adimur	Plup.	aditus eram		
	ad <u>i</u> mini	F. P.	aditus erõ		
	adītur adīmur	Perf. Plup.	aditus sum aditus eram		

adeuntur

Pres. adear Impf. adirer Perf. aditus sim Plup. aditus essem Infin. adiri. aditus esse PART. aditus adeundus

Thus inflected, the forms of eo are used impersonally in the third person singular of the passive: as, itum est (§ 146. d). The infinitive iri is used with the supine in -um to make the future infinitive passive (§ 147. c. 1). The verb veneo, be sold (i.e. venum eo, go to sale), has also several forms in the passive.

- b. In the perfect system of eo and its compounds the forms with v are extremely rare.
- c. The compound ambio, inflected regularly like a verb of the fourth conjugation, has also ambibat in the imperfect indicative.
 - d. Pro with eo retains its original d: as, prodeo, prodis, prodit.

142. Facio, facere, feci, factum, make, is regular. But it has imperative fac in the active, and besides the regular forms the future perfect faxo, perfect subjunctive faxim. The passive of facto is —

fio, fieri, factus sum, be made, or become.

The tenses of the first stem of fio are regular of the fourth conjugation, but the subjunctive imperfect is flerem, and the infinitive fleri.

	Indicative.	Subjunctive.
Pres. S.	fio, fis, fit	fiam, fiās, fiat
P .	fimus, fitis, fiunt	fiāmus, fiātis, fiant
Imperf.	fiēbam, fiēbās, etc.	fierem, fieres, etc.
Future.	fiam, fies, etc.	
Perfect.	factus sum	factus sim
Pluperf.	factus eram	factus essem
Fut. Perf	factus erō	
ER.	fi. fite. fito. fitote. fiunto	

IMPER.

INFIN. Pres. fleri Perf. factus esse Fut. factum iri

PART. Perf. factus Ger. faciendus

a. Most compounds of facto with prepositions change a to i (present stem), or **ĕ** (supine stem), and are inflected regularly: as, —

> conficio, conficere, confeci, confectum, finish. conficior, confici, confectus,

- b. Other compounds retain a, and have -fio in the passive: as, benefacio, -facere, -feci, -factum; pass. benefio, -fieri, -factus, benefit. These retain the accent of the simple verb: as, bene-tă'cis (§ 19. d).
 - c. A few isolated forms of -fio occur in other compounds: viz., —

infit, he begins (to speak). confit, it happens. defit, it lacks. confiet dēfiunt infinnt confiat defiet effieri, to be effected. confieret interfieri, to perish. dēfiat confieri dēfieri interfiat, let him perish.

DEFECTIVE VERBS.

148. Some verbs have lost their Present stem, and use only tenses of the Perfect, in which they are inflected regularly. These are —

a. Coepi, I began; Infin. coepisse; Fut. Part. coepturus; Perf. Pass. Part. coeptus.

The passive is used with the passive infinitive: as, coeptus sum vocārī, I began to be called, but coepī vocāre, I began to call. For the present incipiō is used.

- b. Odi, I hate; perfect participle osus, hating or hated (perosus, utterly hateful), future participle osurus, likely to hate.
- c. Memini, I remember; with the Imperative memento, mementote; Part. meminons.

Note. — $\overline{\mathbf{0}}$ di and memini have a perfect form with a present meaning, and are called *preteritive verbs*. Novi and consuovi (usually referred to nosco and consuosco) are often used in the sense of *I know* (have learned), and *I am accustomed* (have become accustomed), as preteritive verbs. Many other verbs are occasionally used in the same way (see § 279. Remark).

144. Many verbs are found only in the present system. Such are maereo, -ere, be sorrowful (cf. maestus, sad); ferio, -ire, strike.

In many the simple verb is incomplete, but the missing parts occur in its compounds: as, vādō, vādere, invāsī, invāsum.

Some verbs occur very commonly, but only in a few forms: as, — a. $\overline{A15}$, I say: —

Indic. Pres. āiō, ais, ait; ———— āiunt Impf. āiēbam (aībam), āiēbās, etc.

Subj. Pres. āiās, āiat, āiant

IMPER. ai

b. Inquam, I say (used only, except in poetry, in direct quotations, like the English quoth, which is possibly from the same root):—

Indic. Pres. inquam, inquis, inquit inquimus, inquitis (late), inquiunt

Impf. inquiebat

Fut. inquies, -et

Perf. inquisti, inquit

IMPER. inque, inquito

c. The deponent fari, to speak, forms the perfect tenses regularly: as, fatus sum, eram, etc. It has also —

INDIC. Pres. fatur, fantur

Fut. fābor, fābitur fāre

IMPER.

Infin. färi

PART. Pres. (dat.) fanti

Perf. fatus, having spoken.

Ger. tandus, to be spoken of.

GER.

fandī. -dō

SUP.

fātiī

Several forms compounded with the prepositions **ex**, **prae**, **prō**, **inter**, occur: as, **praefātur**, **affārī**, **prōfātus**, **interfātur**, etc. The compound **infāns** is regularly used as a noun (*child*). **Infandus**, **nefandus**, are used as adjectives, *unspeakable*, *abominable*.

d. Quaeso, I ask, beg (original form of quaero), has —

INDIC. Pres. quaeso, quaesumus

Infin. Part. quaesere quaesens

e. Ovare, to triumph, has the following: -

INDIC. Pres. ovat

Subj. Pres. ovet

Impf. ovaret

PART.

ovāns, ovātūrus, ovātus

GER"

ovandî

f. A few verbs are found chiefly in the Imperative: as, —

Pres. sing. salvē, plur. salvēte, hail! (from salvus, safe and sound). An infin. salvēre also occurs.

Pres. sing. ave (or have), plur. avete, Fut. aveto, hail or farewell.

Pres. sing. cedo, plur. cedite (cette), give, tell.

Pres. sing. apage! begone! (properly a Greek word).

g. Queō, I can, nequeō, I cannot, are conjugated like eō. They are rarely used except in the present.

INDIC.	Subj.	INDIC.	Subj.	
	I	resent.		
queõ	queam	nequeō (nōn queō)	nequeam	
quis	queās	nõnquis	nequeãs	
quit	queat	nequit	nequeat	
quimus	queāmus	nequimus	nequeāmus	
quitts	queātis	nequitis	nequeātis	
queunt	queant	nequeunt	nequeant	
	In	nperfect.		
quibam	quirem	nequibam	nequirem	
quibat	quiret	nequibat	nequiret	
quibant	quirent	nequibant	nequirent	
		Future.		
quibō	•			
quibunt		nequibunt		
	1	Perfect.		
quivi È		nequivi		
		nequivisti		
q uiv it	quiverit	nequivit		
quivērunt		nequivērunt		
Pluperfect.				
	quissent		nequisset	
	Inf	INITIVE.		
quire quivisse (quisse) nequire nequivisse				
Participles.				
quiens, queu	ıntis	nequiēns		

IMPERSONAL VERBS.

145. Many verbs, from their meaning, appear only in the *third person singular*, the *infinitive*, and the *gerund*. These are called Impersonal Verbs, as having no personal subject. Their synopsis may be given as follows:—

Conj. 1.	II.	111.	IV.>	Pass. Conj. 1.
it is plain.	it is allowed.	it chances.	it results.	it is fought.
constat	licet	accidit	ēvenit	pügnātur
constabat	licēbat	accidēbat	ēveniēbat	pügnābātur
constabit	licebit [est	accidet	ēveniet	pügnābitur
constitit	licuit, -itum	accidit	ēvēnit	pūgnātum est
constiterat	licuerat	acciderat	ēvēnerat	pūgnātum erat
constiterit	licuerit	acciderit	ēvēnerit	pügnātum erit
constet	liceat	accidat	ēveniat	pügnētur
c onstaret	lic ë ret	accideret	ēv enīret	pügnärētur
constiterit	licuerit	acciderit	ēvēnerit	pūgnātum sit
constitisset	licuisset	accidisset	ëvënisset	pügnātum esset
constare	licēre	acciděre	ēv enīre	pügnāri
constitisse	licuisse	accidisse	ēvēnisse	pūgnātum esse
-stātūrum esse	-itūrum esse		-tūrum esse	pügnātum iri

146. Impersonal Verbs may be classified as follows:—

a. Verbs expressing the operations of nature and the time of day: as, pluit, it rains; ningit, it snows; grandinat, it hails; fulgurat, it lightens; vesperascit (inceptive, § 167. a), it grows late; luciscit hoc iam, it is getting light now.

NOTE. — In these no subject is distinctly thought of. Sometimes, however, the verb is used personally with the name of a divinity as the subject: as, Iuppiter tonat, Jupiter thunders. In poetry other subjects are occasionally used: as, fundae saxa pluunt, the slings rain stones.

b. Verbs of feeling, where the person who is the proper subject becomes the object, as being himself affected by the feeling expressed in the verb (§ 221. b). Such are miseret, it grieves; paenitet (poenitet), it repents; piget, it disgusts; pudet, it shames; taedet, it wearies: as, miseret mē, I pity (it distresses me).

Note. — Such verbs often have also a passive form: as, misereor, *I pity* (am moved to pity); and occasionally other parts: as, paenitūrus (as from † paeniō), paenitendus, pudendus, pertaesum est, pigitum est.

c. Verbs which have a phrase or clause as their subject (§§ 270. a, 330, 332. a): as,—

decet, it is becoming.

accidit, contingit, evenit, obtingit, obvenit, fit, it happens.

libet, it pleases.

licet, it is permitted.

certum est, it is resolved.

constat, it is clear.

delectat, invat. it delights.

necesse est,
oportet,

praestat, it is better.

NOTE. — Many of these verbs may be used personally. Libet and licet have also the passive forms libitum (licitum) est, etc. The participles libens and licens are used as adjectives.

interest, refert, it concerns.

d. The passive of intransitive verbs is very often used impersonally: as, pugnātur, there is fighting (it is fought); itur, some one goes (it is gone); paroitur mihi, I am spared (it is spared to me, see § 230).

Periphrastic Forms.

- 147. The following periphrastic forms are found in the inflection of the verb:
 - a. The so-called "Periphrastic Conjugations" (see § 129).
- b. The tenses of completed action in the passive formed by the tenses of esse with the perfect participle: as, amātus est.
 - c. The future infinitive passive, formed as follows:
- 1. By the infinitive passive of e5, go, used impersonally with the supine in -um: amātum īrī.
- 2. By fore (or futurum esse), with the perfect participle (as amatus fore).
 - 3. By fore with ut and the subjunctive (cf. \S 288. f).

NOTE.

Origin and History of Verb-Forms.

The forms that make up the conjugation of a verb are composed of formations from a root, originally separate, but gradually grouped together, and afterwards supplemented by new formations made on old lines to supply deficiencies. Some of these forms were inherited, already made, by the Latin language; others were developed in the course of the history of the language itself.

7. PARTICLES.

Adverbs, Prepositions, Conjunctions, and Interjections are called Particles. In their origin they are (1) caseforms, actual or extinct, (2) compounds and phrases, or (3) meaningless exclamations.

I. ADVERBS.

z. Derivation.

- 148. Adverbs are regularly formed from adjectives as follows:—
- a. From adjectives of the *first and second declensions*, by changing the characteristic vowel of the stem to -ē: as, cārē, dearly, from cārus, dear (stem cāro-).
- b. From adjectives of the third declension by adding -ter to the stem. Stems in nt- (nom. -ns) lose the -t. All others are treated as i-stems. Thus, —

fortiter, bravely, from fortis (stem forti-), brave. ācriter, eagerly, from ācer (stem ācri-), eager. vigilanter, watchfully, from vigilāns (stem vigilant-). prūdenter, prudently, from prūdēns (stem prūdent-). aliter, otherwise, from alius (old stem ali-).

- c. Some adjectives of the first and second declensions have adverbs of both forms (-\(\bar{e}\) and -ter). Thus, d\(\bar{u}\)rus, hard, d\(\bar{u}\)r\(\bar{e}\) and d\(\bar{u}\)riter.
- d. The neuter accusative of adjectives and pronouns is often used as an adverb: as, multum, much; facile, easily; quid, why.

So, regularly in the comparative degree: as, acrius, more keenly (positive acriter); facilius, more easily (positive facile).

2. Classification.

149. Adverbs are classified as follows: --

a. ADVERBS OF PLACE.

hīc, here. hūc, hither. hinc, hence. hāc, by this way.

b. ADVERBS OF TIME.

quando? when? (interrog.); cum (quom), when (relat.).

c. Adverbs of Degree or Cause.

quam, how, as; tam, so; quamvis, however much, although; quo-modo. how.

d. Interrogative Particles.

an, -ne, anne, utrum, utrumne, num, whether.

c. NEGATIVE PARTICLES.

non, not (in simple denial); haud (hau, haut), minime, not (in contradiction); ne, not (in prohibition); neve, neu, nor; nedum, much less.

f. Adverbs of Manner (see § 148).
g. Numeral Adverbs (see § 96).

- 3. Peculiar Uses of Adverbs.
- 150. Two negatives are equivalent to an affirmative: as, —

nēmō nōn audiet, every one will hear (nobody will not hear).

a. Many compounds of which non is the first part express an indefinite affirmative: as, —

nonnullus, some; nonnulli (= aliqui), some few.

nonnihil (= aliquid), something.

nonnemo (= aliquot), sundry persons.

nonnumquam (= aliquotiens), sometimes.

necnon, also (nor not).

b. Two negatives of which the second is non (belonging to the predicate) express a universal affirmative: as,—

nēmō nōn, nūllus nōn, nobody [does] not, i.e. everybody [does] (cf. nōnnēmō, above, not nobody, i.e. somebody).

nihil non, everything.

numquam non, never not, i.e. always (cf. nonnumquam, above, not never, i.e. sometimes).

- 151. The following adverbs require special notice:—
- a. Etiam (et iam), also, even, is stronger than quoque, also, and usually precedes the emphatic word, while quoque follows it: as, —

non verbis solum sed etiam vi (Verr. II. ii, 64), not only by words, but also by force.

hoc quoque maleficium (Rosc. Am. 118), this crime too.

b. Nunc (for †num-ce) means definitely now, in the immediate present, and is not used as in English of past time. Iam means now, already, at length, presently, and includes a reference to previous time through which the state of things described has been or will be reached. It may be used of any time. With negatives it means (no) longer.

Tum, then, is correlative to cum, when, and may be used of any time. Tune, then, at that time, is a strengthened form of tum tum-ce, cf. nune). Thus, —

ut iam anteā dīxī, as I have already said before.

sī iam satis aetātis atque rōboris habēret (Rosc. Am. 149), if he had attained a suitable age and strength (lit. if he now had, as he will by and by).

non est iam lenitati locus, there is no longer room for mercy.

quod iam erat īnstitūtum, which had come to be a practice (had now been established).

nunc quidem deleta est, tunc florebat (Læl. 13), now ('tis true) she [Greece] is ruined, then she was in her glory.
tum cum regnabat, at the time when he reigned.

- c. Certo means certainly; certo (usually), at any rate: as, certo scio, I know for a certainty; ego certo, I at any rate.
- d. Primum means first, "firstly" (first in order or for the first time), and implies a series of events or acts. Primo means at first, as opposed to afterwards, giving prominence merely to the difference of time: as,—

hoc primum sentio, this I hold in the first place. aedes primo ruere rebamur, at first we thought the house was falling.

In enumerations, **primum** (or **primo**) is often followed by **deinde**, secondly, in the next place, or by tum, then, or by both in succession. **Deinde** may be several times repeated (secondly, thirdly, etc.). The series is often closed by **denique** or **postremo**, lastly, finally. Thus, —

primum de genere belli, deinde de magnitudine, tum de imperatore deligendo (Manil.), first of the kind of war, next of its magnitude, then of the choice of a commander.

e. Quldem, to be sure, gives emphasis, and often has a concessive meaning, especially when followed by sed, autem, etc.: as,—

hōc quidem vidēre licet (Læl. 54), THIS surely one may see. [Emphatic.] (sēcūritās) speciē quidem blanda, sed reāpse multīs locīs repudianda (id. 47), (tranquility) in appearance, 'tis true, attractive, but in reality to be rejected for many reasons. [Concessive.]

No. . . . quidem means not even or not . . . either. The emphatic word or words must stand between no and quidem.

senex ne quod speret quidem habet (C. M. 68), an old man has NOT anything to hope for EVEN.

sed ne Iugurtha quidem quietus erat (Jug. 51), but Jugurtha was not quiet

II. PREPOSITIONS.

- 152. Prepositions are regularly used either with the Accusative or with the Ablative.
 - a. The following are used with the Accusative: —

ad. to. extra, outside. post, after. adversus, against. praeter, beyond. in. into. adversum, towards. infra. below. prope, near. ante, before. propter, on account of. inter, among. apud, at, near. intra. inside. secundum, next to. circa, around. iuxtā, near. sub. under. circum, around. ob. on account of. suprā, above. penes, in the power. trans, across. circiter. about. cis. citra. this side. ultra, on the further side. per, through. contra, against. pone, behind. versus, towards. ergā, towards.

b. The following are used with the Ablative:—

ā, ǎb, abs, away from, by.
absque, without, but for.
cōram, in presence of.
cum, with.
dē, from.
ē, ex, out of.
in, in.
prae, in comparison with.
prō, in front of, for.
sine, without.
sub, under.
tenus, up to, as far as.

c. The following may be used with either the Accusative or the Ablative, but with a difference in meaning:—

in, into, in. sub, under. subter, beneath. super, above.

In and sub, when followed by the accusative, indicate motion to, when by the ablative, rest in, a place: as,—

venit in aedes, he came into the house; erat in aedibus, he was in the house. sub ilice consederat, he had seated himself under an ilex.

sub lēgēs mīttere orbem, to subject the world to laws (to send the world under laws).

158. The uses of the Prepositions are various, and are explained in the dictionaries.

III. CONJUNCTIONS.

- 154. Conjunctions connect words, phrases, or sentences. They are of two classes:—
- a. CO-ORDINATE, connecting co-ordinate or similar constructions (see § 180. a). These are—
 - Copulative or disjunctive, implying a connection or opposition of thought as well as of words: as, et, and.
 - Adversative, implying a connection of words, but a contrast in thought: as, sed, but.
 - 3. Causal, introducing a cause or reason: as, nam, for.
 - 4. Illative, denoting an inference: as, igitur, therefore.
- b. Subordinate, connecting a subordinate or dependent clause with that on which it depends (see § 180. b). These are
 - Conditional, denoting a condition or hypothesis: as, si, if; nist, unless.
 - Comparative, implying comparison as well as condition: as, āc sī, as if.
 - 3. Concessive, denoting a concession or admission: as, quamquam, although (lit. however much it may be true that, etc.).
 - 4. Temporal: as, postquam, after.
 - 5. Consecutive, expressing result: as, ut, so that.
 - 6. Final, expressing purpose: as, ut, in order that; ne, that not.
- 155. Conjunctions are more numerous and more accurately distinguished in Latin than in English. For classified lists, see larger grammar.
- 156. The following are the principal conjunctions whose meaning requires to be noticed:—
- a. Et, and, simply connects words or clauses; -que combines more closely into one connected whole. -que is always enclitic to the word connected or to the first or second of two or more words connected. Thus, —

cum coniugibus et liberis, with [their] wives and children.

ferro ignique, with fire and sword. [Not as separate things, but as the combined means of devastation.]

aquā et īgnī interdictus, forbidden the use of water and fire. [In a legal formula, where they are considered separately.]

Atque (āc) adds with some emphasis or with some implied reflection on the word added. Hence it is often equivalent to and so, and yet, and besides. But these distinctions depend very much upon the feeling of the speaker, and are often untranslatable: as.—

omnia honesta atque inhonesta, everything honorable and dishonorable (too, without the slightest distinction).

usus atque disciplina, practice and theory beside (the more important or less expected).

atque ego crēdō, and yet I believe (for my part).

In the second of two connected ideas, and not is expressed by neque (nec): as,—

neque vērö hōc solum dīxit, and he not only said this.

Atque (āc), in the sense of as, than, is also used after words of comparison and likeness: as,—

non secus (aliter) ac sī, not otherwise than if. pro eo ac debuī, as was my duty (in accordance as I ought).

b. Sed and the more emphatic vērum or vērō, but, introduce something in opposition to what precedes, especially after negatives (not this . . . but something else). At introduces with emphasis a new point in an argument, but is also used like the others.

At enim almost always introduces a supposed objection which is presently to be overthrown. At is more rarely used alone in this sense. Autem, however, now, is the weakest of the adversatives, and often has hardly any adversative force perceptible. Atqui, however, now, sometimes introduces an objection and sometimes a fresh step in the reasoning. Quod si, but if, and if, now if, is used to continue an argument. Ast is old or poetic and is equivalent to at.

NOTE. — A concessive is often followed by an adversative either in a coordinate or a subordinate clause: as, etiams quod scribas non habebis, scribito tamen (Cic.), though you have nothing to write, still write all the same.

c. Aut, or, excludes one alternative; vel and -ve give a choice between two. But this distinction is sometimes neglected. Thus, —

sed quis ego sum ant quae est in me facultas, but who am I, or what special capacity have I? [Here vel could not be used, because in fact a negative is implied and both alternatives are excluded.]

quam tenuï ant nulla potius valētudine, what feeble health [he had], or rather none at all. [Here vel might be used, but would refer only to the expression, not to the fact.]

vīta tālis fuit vel fortūnā vel gloriā, his life was such either in respect to fortune or fame (whichever way you look at it).

sī propīnquōs habeant imbēcilliōrēs vel animō vel fortūnā, if they have relatives beneath them either in spirit or in fortune (in either respect, for example).

cum cogniti sunt et aut deorum aut regum filii inventi, sons either of gods or of kings. [Here one case would exclude the other.]

Sive (seu) is properly used in disjunctive conditions (if either... or if), but also with alternative words and clauses, especially with two names for the same thing: as,—

sive arridens sive quod ita putaret (De Or. i. 91), either laughingly or because he really thought so.

Vel is often used with no alternative force: as,—vel minimus, the very least.

- d. Nam and namque, for, usually introduce a real reason, formally expressed, for a previous statement; enim (always postpositive), a less important explanatory circumstance put in by the way; etenim (for, you see; for, you know, and its negative neque enim introduce something self-evident or needing no proof.
 - (ea vîta) quae est sola vîta nominanda. nam dum sumus in his inclusi compagibus corporis munere quodam necessitătis et gravi opere perfungimur. est enim animus caelestis, etc. (Cat. Maj. 77).
 - hārum trium sententiārum nūllī prōrsus assentior. nec enim illa prīma vēra est, for of course that first one is n't true.
- e. Ergō, therefore, is used of things proved formally, but often has a weakened force. Igitur, then, accordingly, is weaker than ergō and is used in passing from one stage of an argument to another. Itaque, therefore, accordingly, and so, is used in proofs or inferences from the nature of things rather than in formal logical proof.

All of these are often used merely to resume a train of thought broken by a digression or parenthesis. Idcirco, for this reason, on this account, is regularly followed (or preceded) by a correlative: as,

quia, quod, sī, ut, nē, and refers to the special point introduced by

nē aegrī quidem quia non omnēs convalēscunt, idcirco ars nulla medicīnae est.

malum mihi vidētur mors. est miserum igitur, quoniam malum. certē. ergō et eī quibus ēvēnit iam ut morerentur et eī quibus ēventūrum est miserī. mihi ita vidētur. nēmō ergō nōn miser. (Tusc. i. 9.)

meministis enim cum illīus nefāriī gladiātōris vōcēs percrēbuissent quās, etc.—tum igitur (Mur. 50).

f. Quia, because, regularly introduces a fact; quod, either a fact or a statement. Quoniam (for quom iam), inasmuch as, since, when now, now that, has reference to motives, excuses, or justifications, and the like. Quando, since, is mostly archaic or late.

possunt quia posse videntur, they can because they think they can.

locus est ā mē quoniam ita Mūrēna voluit retrāctandus (Mur. 54), I must review the point, since Murena has so wished.

mē reprehendis quod idem dēfendam (as he had not) quod lēge pūnierim (Mur. 67), you blame me because [as you say] I defend the same charge which I have punished by law.

In the denial of a reason, non quo is used as well as non quod, non quia, and non quin, but not non quoniam. Thus, —

- non quia multīs dēbeo . . . sed quia saepe concurrunt aliquorum bene dē mē meritorum inter ipsos contentiones (Planc. 78), not because I am indebted to many, but because, etc.
- non quin pari virtute et voluntate alii fuerint, sed tantam causam non habuërunt (Phil. vii. 6), not that there were not others of equal courage and good-will, but they had not so much reason.
- g. Cum (quom), when, is always a relative, and is often correlative with tum, (see h. I, below); quando, when (rarely since), is used as interrogative, relative, and indefinite: as, quando? hodio, when? to-day; si quando, if ever.
- h. 1. Conjunctions, especially those of relative origin, frequently have a correlative in another clause, to which they correspond: as,—ut sementem feeris, ita metes, as you sow, so shall you reap.
- 2. Often the same conjunction is repeated in two co-ordinate clauses. Examples are —

et ... et, both ... and.
modo ... modo, now ... now.
nunc ... nunc, now ... now.

i. The concessives (etai, quamvis, etc., although) may introduce either a fact or a mere supposition, and are often followed by the correlative tamen, yet, nevertheless; quamquam regularly introduces an admitted fact and not a mere supposition.

Quamquam (and rarely etsi, tametsi) in the sense of though (and yet, but, however) may also introduce an independent statement made to limit or correct the preceding: as,—

- ille volt diu vivere, hic diu vixit, quamquam, ō di boni, quid est in hominis vita diu? (Cat. M. 68), the one wishes to live long, the other has lived long, though (after all) Good Heavens! what is there that is long in the life of man?
- &. Autem, enim, and vero are postpositive, i.e. they always follow one or more words of their clause; so, generally, igitur and often tamen.

INTERJECTIONS.

Ō, ēn, ecce, ehem, papae, vāh (of astonishment).
iō, ēvae, ēvoe, euhoe (of joy).
heu, ēheu, vae, alas (of sorrow).
heus, eho, ehodum, ho (of calling); st, hist.
ēia, euge (of praise).
prō (of attestation): as, prō pudor, shame!

FORMATION OF WORDS.

NOTE. — All formation of words is originally a process of composition. An element significant in itself is added to another significant element, and thus the meaning of the two is combined.

I. ROOTS AND STEMS.

- 157. Roots 1 are of two kinds :-
- 1. Verbal, expressing ideas of action or condition (sensible phenomena).
- 2. Pronominal, expressing ideas of position and direction.

¹ For the distinction between Roots and Stems, see §§ 21, 22.

Stems are divided into (1) Noun- (including Adjective-) stems, and (2) Verb-stems.

- 158. Words are formed by inflection:
- 1. From roots inflected as stems, —
- a. Without change: as, duc-is (dux), DUC; nec-is (nex); is, id. So in verbs: as, est, fert, est.
- b. With change of the root-vowel: as, lūc-is (lūx), LUC; pāc-is (pāx). So in verbs: i-s for †eis, from eō, ire; fātur, from for, fārī.

Note. — It is impossible to say whether the form of root in a or in b is the original one. But for convenience the above order is adopted.

- c. With reduplication: as, fur-fur, mar-mor, mur-mur. So in verbs: as, si-stō (root STA).
 - 2. From derived stems; see § 159.

II. SUFFIXES.

- 159. Stems are derived from roots or from other stems by means of *suffixes*. These are—
- 1. Primary: added to the root, or (later by analogy) to verb-stems.
 - 2. Secondary: added to a noun- or adjective-stem.

Both primary and secondary suffixes are for the most part pronominal roots (§ 157. 2), but a few are of doubtful origin. Thus a word regularly consists of a verbal root and one or more pronominal roots and inflectional terminations

1. Primary Suffixes.

- 160. The words in Latin formed immediately from the root by means of Primary suffixes are few.
- a. Inherited words so formed were mostly further developed by the addition of other suffixes, as we might make an adjective *lone-ly-some-ish*, meaning nothing more than *lone*, *lonely*, or *lonesome*.
- b. By such accumulation of suffixes, new compound suffixes were formed which crowded out even the old types of derivation: thus, —

A word like mēns, mentis, by the suffix on- (nom. -o) gave mentio, and this being divided into men + tio, gave rise to a new type of abstract nouns in -tio (phonetically -sio): as, logātio, embassy.

A word like auditor, by the suffix io- (nom. -ius), gave rise to adjectives like auditorius, of which the neuter is used to denote the place where the action of the verb is performed. Hence -torium, N., becomes a regular suffix (§ 164. i. 5).

So in English such a word as mechanically gives a suffix -ally, making telegraphically, though there is no such word as telegraphical.

- c. Examples of primary suffixes are —
- 1. Vowel suffixes: as, —
- a, found in nouns and adjectives of a- and o-stems: as, sonus, ludus, vagus, scrība, toga (root TEG).
- 2. Suffixes with a consonant: as, —

ta (in the form to-) in the regular perfect passive participle, as tēctus, tēctum; sometimes with an active sense, as in pētus, prānsus; and found in a few words not recognized as participles, as putus (cf. pūrus), altus (alē).

va (commonly uo-) with an active or passive meaning, as in ecus, arvum, conspicuus, exiguus, vacīvus (vacuus).

2. Significant Endings.

161. Both primary and secondary suffixes, especially in the form of compound suffixes, were used in Latin with more or less consciousness of their meaning. They may therefore be called Significant Endings.

They form: 1. Nouns of Agency; 2. Names of Action; 3. Adjectives (active or passive).

III. DERIVATION OF NOUNS AND ADJECTIVES.

1. Nouns of Agency.

162. Nouns of Agency properly denote the agent or doer of an action. But they include many words in which the idea of agency has entirely faded out, and also many words used as adjectives. Their significant endings are—

a. -tor (-sor), M., -trix, F., added to roots or verb-stems to denote the agent or doer of an action.

cano, sing (CAN, supine †cantum); cantor, singer; cantrix, songstress.

tondeō, shear (TOND as root, sup. tōnsum); tōnsor, tōnstrix, hair-cutter.

By analogy -tor is sometimes added to noun-stems as if stems of lost verbs: as, viātor, traveller, from via, way (but cf. inviō).

b. t- (originally ta-, cf. § 160. c), c., added to verb-stems making nouns in -es (-itis, -etis, stem -it-, -et-) descriptive of a character: as,—

teges (verb-stem tege-, cf. tego, cover), a coverer, a mat.

c. -5 (gen. -5nis, stem 5n-), M., added to stems conceived as verb-stems (but perhaps originally noun-stems) to indicate a person employed in some specific art or trade: as,—

gerō (GES in gerō, gerere, carry, but compare -ger in armiger, squire), a carrier.

com-bibō (BIB as root in bibō, bibere, drink), a pot-companion.

2. Names of Actions.

163. Names of Actions are derived (1) really or apparently from roots and verb-stems (primary) or (2) from noun-stems (secondary).

Note. — These easily pass into pure Concrete nouns denoting the result, means, or instrument of the action. Compare an apparition, a congregation, a rainfall, a large following, a drive of logs.

- 1. Real or Apparent Primary Formations.
- a. -or (st. or-, earlier os-), m., -os (gen. -is, st. i-, earlier os-), f., -us (st. or os-), n., added to roots make names of actions: as, —

timeo, fear (verb); tim-or, fear (noun).

sedeō, sit; sēd-ēs, seat.

decet, it is becoming; dec-us, grace, beauty.

NOTE. — Many nouns of this class are formed by analogy from imaginary roots: as, facinus (from a supposed root facin).

b. -iō (st. iōn-), -tiō (st. tiōn-), -tūra (st. tūra-), F., -tus (st. tu-),
M., (phonetically -siō, -sūra, -sus), apparently added to roots or verb-stems, make verbal abstracts.

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lego, enroll; leg-io (an enrolling, the thing enrolled), a legion.
  rego, direct; reg-io, a direction, a region.
  insero (SA), implant; insi-tio, grafting.
  vocō, call; vocā-tiō, a calling.
  molior, toil; moli-tio, a toiling.
  pingo (PIG), paint; pic-tura, the art of painting, a painting.
  sentio, feel; sen-sus, feeling, perception, a feeling.
  fruor, enjoy (for †fruguor); fruc-tus, enjoyment, fruit, a fruit.
  c. -men, -mentum, -monium, N., -monia, F., apparently added to
roots or verb-stems denote ACTS, or MEANS and RESULTS of acts.
  ago, root AG, lead; ag-men, line of march, a company.
  regi- (stem seen in rego, direct); { regi-men, rule. regi-mentum, rule.
   So colu-men, pillar; mō-men, movement; nō-men, name.
  fruor, enjoy: fru-mentum, grain.
   testor, witness; testi-monium, testimony.
   queror, complain; queri-monia, complaint.
   Also flā-men (M.), a priest (flō, blow, of the sacrificial fire).
   REMARK. — -monium and -monia are also used as secondary, form-
ing nouns from other nouns and from adjectives: as, sancti-monia,
sanctity (sanctus, holy); matri-monium, marriage (mater, mother).
   d. -bulum, -culum, -brum, -crum, -trum, N., added to verb-stems
or roots (rarely to noun-stems), denote MEANS, INSTRUMENT, or
PLACE: as, --
   pāscō, feed; pā-bulum, fodder.
   sto, stand; sta-bulum, stall (standing-place).
   tus (gen. turis), incense; turi-bulum, a censer.
   vehō, carry; vehi-culum, wagon.
   piō, purify; piā-culum, an expiation.
   flo, blow; fla-bra (pl.), blasts.
   candela, a candle; candela-brum, a candlestick.
   sepelio, bury; sepul-crum, tomb (place for burying).
   claudo, shut; claus-trum, a bar.
```

A few Masculines and Feminines of the same formation occur as a nouns and adjectives: as, -

for, speak; fā-bula, tale.
rideo, laugh; ridi-culus, laughable.

facio, make; fa-ber, smith.

lateo, hide; late-bra, hiding-place.

tero, bore; tere-bra, auger.

mulgeo, milk; mulc-tra, milk-pail.

uro, burn; Auster, South wind.

2. Secondary Formations.

e. -ia, -tia (-iēs, -tiēs), -tās, -tūs, -tūdō, F., are added to adjective stems and a few to nouns to make abstracts. So -dō and -gō, F., but associated with verbs, and apparently added to verb-stems. Thus, —

audāx, bold; audāc-ia, boldness. So, fidūc-ia, confidence († fidūx). prūdēns, wise: prūdent-ia, wisdom.

superbus, proud; superb-ia, pride.

tristis, sad; tristi-tia, sadness.

pauper, poor; pauper-ies, poverty.

sēgnis, lazy; sēgni-tiēs, laziness.

bonus, good; boni-tas, goodness.

cīvis, citizen; cīvi-tās, citizenship.

senex, old; senec-tus, age.

solus, alone; soli-tudo, solitude.

dulcis, sweet; dulcē-dō, sweetness (probably from a lost stem dulcē-, cf. dulcē-scō).

cupio, I desire; cupi-do (as if from stem cupi-, cf. cupi-vi).

lumbus, the loin; lumbā-gō, lumbago (as if from †lumbō, āre). rubus, bramble (red bush); rūbī-gō, rust (redness).

prūrio, itch; prūri-go, itching.

Stems ending in o- or a- lose these vowels before -ia (as superb-ia), and change them to i before -tās, -tūs, -tia (as boni-tās, above).

Consonant-stems often insert -i before -tās: as, loquāx (stem loquāc-), loquāci-tās; but hones-tās, māies-tās (as if from old adjectives in -es), ūber-tās, volup-tās. o after i is changed to e: as, pius (stem pio-), pie-tās; socius, socie-tās (see § 11. d).

f. -ium, -tium, added to noun- and perhaps verb-stems, form neuter abstracts, which easily pass into concretes denoting OFFICES and GROUPS: as,—

hospes (gen. hospit-is), a guest; hospit-ium, hospitality, an inn. servus, a slave; servi-tium, slavery, the slave class.

collega, a colleague; colleg-ium, colleagueship, a college.

auspex, a soothsayer; auspic-ium, soothsaying, an omen.

gaudeō, rejoice; gaud-ium, joy.

benefacio, benefit; benefic-ium, a kindness (but cf. beneficus).

dē-siderō, miss (from † dē-sidēs, out of place, of missing soldiers);
dēsider-ium, longing.

effugio, escape; effugium, an escape (cf. profugus).

ad verbum, [added] to a verb; adverb-ium, an adverb.

inter-lunas, between moons; interlun-ium, time of new moon.

rēgis tuga, flight of a king; rēgitug-ium, flight of kings.

Vowel-stems lose their vowel before -ium, as collēg-ium, from collēga.

Less commonly -nia, F., -nium, -lium, -cinium, N., are added to noun-stems, but confused with verb-stems: as, —

pecu, cattle; pecu-nia, property consisting of cattle, money (cf. chattels).

conticesco, hush; contici-nium, the hush of night.

augeo, increase; auxi-lium, help.

pecu, cattle; pecu-lium, private property (cf. peculor, implying a noun † peculum).

lātrō, robber; lātrō-cinium, robbery (cf. lātrōcinor, rob, implying an adj. † lātrōcinus).

3. Adjectives.

164. Derivative adjectives are *Nominal* (from nouns or adjectives) or *Verbal* (as from roots or verb-stems).

I. NOMINAL.

a. -ulus (-a, -um) (after a vowel -olus), -culus, -ellus, -illus, make an important class of adjectives, usually appropriated to one gender, that of the Primitive, and used as DIMINUTIVE NOUNS: as,—

rivus, a brook; riv-ulus, a streamlet.

gladius, a sword; gladi-olus, a small sword.

filius, a son; fili-olus, a little son.

filia, a daughter; fili-ola, a little daughter.

ātrium, a hall; ātri-olum, a little hall.

homo, a man; homun-culus, a dwarf.

auris, an ear; auri-cula, a little ear.

munus, N., a gift; munus-culum, a little gift.

†puera (cf. puer, a boy); puella (for †puer-ula), a girl.

codex, a block; codic-illi, writing-tablets.

miser, wretched; mis-ellus, rather wretched.

liber, a book; lib-ellus, a little book.

aureus (-a, -um), golden; aure-olus (-a, -um), golden.

parvus (-a, -um), little; parv-olus (later parv-ulus), very small. māior (old māiōs), greater; māius-culus, somewhat larger.

REMARK. — -ciō, added to stems in n-, has the same diminutive force, but is added to masculines only: as, homun-ciō, a dwarf (from homō, a man).

b. -adēs, M., -ās, F., -idēs, -idēs, M., -is, -ēis, F., -ēus, -eus, M., are added to proper names, forming PATRONYMICS, to indicate descent or relationship.

These, originally Greek adjectives, have almost all become nouns in Latin: as,—

Tyndareus: Tyndar-ides, Castor or Pollux; Tyndar-is (gen. -idis), Helen, daughter of Tyndarus.

Atlas: Atlanti-ades, Mercury; Atlant-ides (Gr. pl.), the Pleiads.

Scipiō: Scipi-adēs, son of Scipio. Anchisēs: Anchisi-adēs, Æneas.

Theseus: Thes-ides, son of Theseus.

Tydeus: Tyd-ides, Diomedes, son of Tydeus.

Oileus: Aiax Oil-eus, son of Oileus.

Thaumās: Thaumanti-as (gen. -adis), Iris, daughter of Thaumas. Hesperus: Hesper-idēs (from Hesper-is, idis), F. pl., the daughters

of Hesperus, the Hesperides.

c. ānus, -ēnus, -inus; -ās, -ēnsis, -acus (-ācus), -icus; -ēus (generally shortened to -ĕus), -ēius, -icius, form adjectives with the sense of BELONGING TO.

1. So from common nouns: as, -

mons (st. monti-), mountain; mont-anus, of the mountains. ante lucem, before light; anteluc-anus, before daylight.

egeō, lack; eg-ēnus, needy.

terra, earth; terr-enus, earthly.

collis, hill; coll-inus, of a hill.

libertus, one's freedman; libert-inus, of the class of freedmen.

vitulus, a calf; vitul-ina (sc. caro), veal.

quis, who? cui-as, of what country?

infimus, lowest; infim-as, of the lowest rank.

forum, a market-place; for-ensis, of a market-place, or the Forum.

merum, pure wine; mer-ācus, pure.

cīvis, a citizen; cīv-icus, civic, of a citizen.

femina, a woman; femin-eus, of a woman, feminine.

lāc, milk (st. lacti-); lact-eus, milky.

plēbēs, the commons; plēb-ēius, of the commons, plebeian.

pater, father; patricius, patrician.

2. But especially from proper nouns (names of places, peoples, and persons) denoting BELONGING TO OR COMING FROM: as,—

Roma: Rom-anus, Roman.

Sulla: Sull-ani, Sulla's veterans.

Cyzicus: Cyzic-eni, Cyzicenes, people of Cyzicus.

Liguria: Ligur-inus, of Liguria.

Arpinum: Arpin-as, of Arpinum (cf. Samnium: Samnis, gen.

-itis, a Samnite).

Sicilia: Sicili-ensis, Sicilian.

Ilum, Troy; Ili-acus, Trojan (a Greek form).

Plato: Platonic.

Aquila: Aquil-eius, a Roman name; Aquileia, a town in Italy.

3. Many derivative adjectives with these endings have by usage become nouns. Thus, —

silva, woods; Silv-ānus, M., a god of the woods.

membrum, limb; membr-āna, F., skin.

·Aemilia (gens); Aemili-anus, M., name of Scipio Africanus.

lanius, butcher; lani-ena, F., a butcher's stall.

†Aufidius (Aufidus), M.; Aufidi-enus, a Roman name.

incola, an inhabitant; inquil-inus, m., a lodger.

caecus, blind; Caec-ina, used as M., a Roman name.

gallus, a cock; gall-īna, f., a hen.

ruō, fall (no noun existing); ru-īna, F., a fall.

doctor, teacher; doctr-ina, F., learning.

d. -ālia, -āria, -ēlia, -īlia, tīlia, -nua, PERTAINING TO, of various modes of relation or possession, but not used as Gentile adjectives: as,—

nātura, nature; nātur-ālis, natural.

populus, a people; popul-āris, fellow-countryman.

patruus, uncle: patru-elis, cousin.

hostis, an enemy; host-ilis, hostile.

currus, chariot; sella cur-ulis, curule chair.

ver, spring; ver-nus, vernal.

e. -ter (-tris), -ester (-estris), -timus, -ernus, -urnus, -ternus (-turnus), BELONGING TO, of places, times, and the like (but some are general adjectives).

palus, a marsh; palus-ter, of the marshes.

pedes, a footman; pedes-ter, of the foot.

sex mēnsēs, six months; sēmēs-tris, semi-annual.

silva, a wood; silv-ester, silv-estria, woody.

finis, an end; fini-timus, neighboring, on the borders.

herī (old hesī), yesterday; hēs-ternus, of yesterday.

diū, long (in time); diū-turnus, lasting.

hodie, to-day; hodi-ernus, of to-day.

dies, day; di-urnus, daily.

f. -ātus, -ītus, -ūtus, PROVIDED WITH, make adjectives with participial ending, formed from nouns, but in reference to an imaginary verb-stem (cf. the English horned, crested, hooked).

barba, a beard; barb-ātus, bearded.

auris, an ear; aur-ītus, long-eared.

versus, a turning; vers-ūtus, crafty, adroit (full of turns).

So -tus, added directly to nouns without reference to any verb: as, --

funus, death; funes-tus, deadly.

honor, honor; hones-tus, honorable.

favor, favor; faus-tus (for †faves-tus), favorable.

g. -eus, -ius, -āceus, -īcius, -āneus (-neus), -ticus, MADE OF OF BELONGING TO, form adjectives of various meanings: as, —

aurum, gold; aur-eus, golden.

pater, a father; patr-ius, paternal.

uxor, a wife; uxorious.

rosa, a rose; ros-āceus, of roses.
later, a brick; later-īcius, of brick.
praesēns, present; praesent-āneus, operating instantly.
extrā, without; extr-āneus, external.
sub terrā, underground; subterr-āneus, subterranean.
salix, willow; salīg-neus, of willow.
volō, fly; volā-ticus, winged (volātus, a flight).
domus, a house; domes-ticus, of the house, domestic.
silva, a wood; silvā-ticus, sylvan.

 \hbar . -ārius, -tōrius (-sōrius), BELONGING TO, make many adjectives often fixed as nouns (see i).

ordo, rank, order; ordin-ārius, regular.
argentum, silver; argent-ārius, of silver or money.
extrā, outside; extr-ārius, stranger.
meritus, earned; meri-torius, profitable.
dēvorsus, turned aside; dēvor-sorius, of an inn (cf. i. 5).

- i. Many fixed forms of the above adjective suffixes make nouns, more or less regularly used in particular senses: as,
 - I. -ārius (regular), person employed about anything: as, argent-ārius, silversmith, broker (from argentum).
 - -āria, thing connected with something: as, arēn-āriae, F. pl., sandpits (from arēna, sand).
 Asin-āria, F., name of a play (from asinus, ass).
- 3. -arium (regular), place of a thing (with a few of more general meaning): as,—

aer-ārium, N., treasury (from aes, copper).
tepid-ārium, N., warm bath (from tepidus, warm).
sūd-ārium, N., a towel (cf. sūdō, -āre, sweat).
sal-ārium, N., salt money, salary (from sāl, salt).
calend-ārium, N., a note-book (from calendae, calends).

4. -tōria (-sōria): as, —

Agitā-tōria, F., a play of Plautus, *The Carter* (from agitātor). vor-sōria, F., a tack (from vorsus, a turn).

5. -tōrium (-sōrium) (regular), place of action (with a few of more general meaning): as, —

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dēvor-sōrium, N., an inn (as from dēvortō, turn aside). audī-tōrium, N., a lecture-room (as from audiō, hear). ten-tōrium, N., a tent (as from tendō, stretch). tēc-tōrium, N., plaster (as from tegō, tēctus, cover). por-tōrium, N., toll (cf. portō, carry, and portus, harbor).
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6. -ile, animal-stall; as, --

bov-île, N., cattle-stall (bos, bovis, ox, cow). ov-île, sheep-fold (ovis, st. ovi-, sheep).

- 7. -al for -āle, thing connected with the primitive: as, —
 capit-al, N., head-dress, capital crime (caput, head).
 penetr-āle (esp. in pl.), N., inner apartment (cf. penetrō).
 Sāturn-ālia, N. pl. (the regular form for names of festivals), feast of Saturn (from Sāturnus).
- 8. -ētum, N. (cf. -ātus, -ūtus, see f), place of a thing; as,—querc-ētum, N., oak grove (from quercus, oak).

 Argīl-ētum, N., The Clay-pit (from argilla, clay).
- 9. -cus (sometimes with inserted i, -icus), -icus, in any one of the genders, with various meanings: as, —

vili-cus, M., vili-ca, F., a steward (stewardess) (from villa, farm-house).

fabr-ica, F., a workshop (from faber, workman). bubul-cus, M., ox-tender (from būb-ulus, dim., cf. bos, ox). cant-icum, N., song (from cantus, act of singing). rubr-ica, F., red paint (from ruber, red).

Io. -eus, -ea, -eum, with various meanings: as, — alv-eus, M., a trough (from alvus, the belly). capr-ea, F., a roe (from caper, he-goat). flamm-eum, N., a bridal veil (from flamma, flame, from its color).

- 11. -ium, confounded with the primary suffix (see § 163. f).
- 12. -ter (stem tro-) and -ter (stem tri-), -aster -ester: as, -

Aus-ter, M., South wind (from uro, burn).

eques-ter, M., knight (for tequet-ter).

sequ-ester, M., a stake-holder (from derivative of **sequor**, follow). ole-aster, M., wild olive (from olea) (cf. surd-aster, from surdus).

k. -done, -(a) lone, -(a) lonetus, full of, prone to : 28, --

Mictas, wave; Micta-done, billowy.

forms, beauty; form-Jone, beautiful.

perioulum, peril; perioul-dous, full of danger.

postie, pest; posti-lena, pesti-lentus, pestilent.

vinum, wine; vino-leutus, vin-deus, given to drink.

II. VERBAL

I. -ac. -1dus, -ulus, -us- (-uus, -īvus, -tīvus), PRONE TO, FITTED TO, apparently 1 added to verb-stems, form adjectives, to express the action of a verb as a QUALITY or TENDENCY. -ax, denotes a faulty or aggressive tendency; -tīvus is oftener passive. Thus, —

pagno, fight; pagn-ax, pugnacions.

anded, dare; and an bold.

capio, desire; cap-idas, eager.

bibo, drink; bib-alas, thirsty (as dry earth, etc.).

protests, trample; protest-van, violent, wanton.

BOCCO, do harm; BOC-GES (BOC-EVUS), hurtful, injurious.

capil, take; cap-time, captive, m., a prisoner of war.

secido, fall back : secid-ivas, restored.

m. - 48ta, - but, - tous, - tous (-allis), express Passive Qualities, but occasionally active: as, ---

mango (PRAG), break; mag-ma, frail, breakable.

nooco (GNO), know; no-bille, well known, famous.

eximo, take out, select; eximina, choice, rare (cf. ö-greg-ins).

ago, drive; ag-sia, active.

habed, hold; hab-lie, handy. ald, nourish; al-tille, fattened.

**. - mirrus, - marus, are properly participial (cf. Greek - participial and amid-mini). They form a few nouns in which the participial force is discernible: as, —

FE, produce; E-mina, woman (the producer).

alo, nourish; alu-mous, a foster child, nursling.

o. -ndus (the same as the gerund-ending) forms a few active or reflexive adjectives: as, ---

¹ The forms felt as verbal are, like the nominal forms, derived from noun-stems, and the two are constantly confounded.

sequot, follow; secu-ndus, second (the following), favorable. roto, whirl (from rota, wheel); rotu-ndus, round (whirling).

p. -bundus, -cundus, with a participial meaning, but denoting continuance of the act or quality.

iocus, a jest; iū-cundus, pleasant (cf. iuvo, -āre).

vito, shun; vita-bundus, dodging about.

tremo, tremble; treme-bundus, trembling.

morior, die; mori-bundus, at the point of death.

for, speak; fa-cundus, eloquent.

FE, produce; fe-cundus, fruitful.

So, ira, anger; ira-cundus, irascible (cf. ira-scor).

III. IRREGULAR DERIVATIVES.

q. The primary suffix $\overline{o}n$, (nom. $-\overline{o}$) is used as secondary to form nouns (originally adjectives), denoting POSSESSED OF and so expressing a character, often used as proper names 2: as,—

epulae, a feast; epul-o, a feaster.

nāsus, a nose; nās-ō, with a large nose (also as a proper name).
-volus (in bene-volus), wishing; vol-ōnēs (pl.), volunteers.

trons, forehead; tront-o, big-head (also as a proper name).

So, cūria, a curia; cūri-ō, head of a curia (also as proper name). restis, a rope; resti-ō, a rope-maker.

† vespertilis, of the evening; vespertili-o, a bat.

r. Rarely suffixes are added to compound stems imagined, but not used in their compound form: as,—

ad-verb-ium, adverb; ad, to, and verbum, verb, but without the intervening † adverbus.

lati-fund-ium, large estate; latus, wide, fundus, estate.

su-ove-taur-ilia, a sacrifice of a swine, a sheep, and a bull; sus, swine, ovis, sheep, taurus, bull, where the primitive would be impossible in Latin.

¹ Compare volvendis mensibus, in the revolving months (Virg.).

² This suffix is the same as in § 162. c, but not connected with a verb.

IV. DERIVATION OF VERBS.

- 165. Verbs may be classed as Primitive or Derivative.
- 1. Primitive verbs are those inherited by the Latin from the parent speech.
- 2. Derivative verbs are those formed in the development of the Latin as a separate language. They are of two main classes:
 - a. DENOMINATIVE VERBS, formed from nouns or adjectives.
 - b. Verbs apparently derived from other verbs (see § 167).

1. Denominative Verbs.

- 166. Verbs were formed in Latin from almost every form of noun- and adjective-stem.
- a. 1. Verbs of the first conjugation are formed directly from a-stems, regularly with a transitive meaning: as, fuga, flight; fugō, put to flight; belliger, belligero (not bellum and gero, which would be impossible).

Note. — Originally particular forms of stem formed particular conjugations of verbs, but from changes of stem and from various cross-analogies the relation between conjugations and stem-forms became entirely confused. Thus poena should make † pūnāre, but it really makes pūnīre, as if an ī-stem (as in impūnī-s); servus makes servāre in one sense, servīre in another.

2. Many verbs of the First Conjugation (commonly transitive) are formed from o-stems, changing the o- into \(\bar{a}\)-. Thus, —

stimulus, a goad (stem stimulo-); stimulō (-āre), incite.
aecus, even (stem aequo-); aequō (-āre), make even.
hībernus, of the winter (stem hīberno-); hībernō, pass the winter.
albus, white (stem albo-); albō (-āre), whiten.
plus, pure (stem pio-); piō (-āre), expiate.

3. A few verbs, generally neuter, are formed by analogy from consonant- and u- stems, adding \(\bar{a} \) to the stem: as, —

vigil, awake; vigilo (-āre), watch.
exsul, an exile; exsulo (-āre), be in exile.

hiemps (stem hiem-), winter; hiemō (-āre), pass the winter. aestus, tide, seething; aestuō (-āre), surge, boil. levis (stem levi-), light; levō (-āre), lighten.

• b. A few verbs of the Second Conjugation (generally intransitive) are recognizable as formed from noun-stems, but most are inherited, or the primitive noun-stem is lost: as,—

albus, white; albeo, be white (cf. albo, -are, whiten, under a. 2). canus (stem cano-), hoary; caneo, be hoary. tumulus, hill (implying † tumus, swelling); tumeo, swell. pro-vidus, foreseeing; pro-video, foresee.

But moneo, remind; cf. memini, remember. algeo, be cold; cf. algidus, cold.

c. Some verbs in -uō, -uere are formed from noun-stems in u-where probably an 1 has been lost: as, —

status, position; statuō, set up. metus, fear; metuō, fear.

d. Many verbs of the Fourth Conjugation are formed from real or imagined i-stems: as, —

moles (-is), mass; molior, -īrī, toil. finis, end; finio, -īre, bound. sitis, thirst; sitio, -īre, thirst. stabilis, stable; stabilio, -re, establish.

Some wrongly from other stems treated as if i-stems: as, -

bulla, bubble; bullio, -ire, boil.

condus, storekeeper; condio, -ire, preserve.

insānus, mad; insāniō, -īre, rave.

gestus, gesture; gestio, -īre, show wild longing. custos, guardian; custodio, -īre, guard.

2. Verbs from other Verbs.

167. The following classes of verbs regularly derived from other verbs have special meanings connected with their terminations.

a. INCEPTIVES or INCHOATIVES add -scō to the present stem of verbs. They denote the beginning of an action. Of some there is no simple verb in existence. Thus, —

caleo, be warm; cale-sco, grow warm.

labo, totter; laba-sco, begin to totter.

scio, know; sci-sco, determine.

cupio, desire; con-cupi-sco, conceive a desire for.

alo, feed; ale-sco, grow.

So, irā-scor, get angry; cf. irā-tus.

iuvene-sco, grow young; cf. iuvenis, young man.

vesperä-scit, it is getting late; cf. vesper, evening.

NOTE. — Inceptives properly have only the present stem, but many use the perfect and supine systems of simple verbs: as, calēscô, caluī; proficiscor, profectus.

b. Intensives or Iteratives end in -tō or -ttō (rarely -sō), and denote a forcible or repeated action: as, —

iaciō, throw; iac-tō, hurl.

dīco, say; dict-ito, keep on saying.

quatio, shake; quas-so, shatter.

They are of the first conjugation, and are properly denominative, derived from the participle in -tus (stem to-).

c. Another form of Intensives — sometimes called Meditatives, or verbs of practice — ends in -essō (rarely -issō). These denote energy or eagerness of action: as, —

capio, take; cap-esso, lay hold on.

facio, do; fac-esso, do (with energy).

peto, seek; pet-isso, seek (eagerly).

These are of the third conjugation, usually having the perfect and supine of the fourth: as, —

lacesso, lacessere, lacessivi, lacessitum, provoke.

d. DIMINUTIVES (derived from real or supposed diminutive nouns) end in -1115, and denote a feeble or petty action: as, —

cavilla, raillery; cav-illor, jest.

canto, sing; cant-illo, chirp or warble.

e. Desideratives end in -turio (-surio), and express longing or wishing. They are of the fourth conjugation, and only three are in common use:—

emō, buy; emp-turiō, want to buy. edō, eat; ē-suriō, be hungry. pariō, bring forth; par-turiō, be in labor.

Note. — Desideratives are derived from some noun of agency: as, empturio, from emptor, buyer. Viso, go to see, is an inherited desiderative of a different formation.

3. Compound Words.

A Compound Word is one whose stem is made up of two or more simple stems.

Only noun-stems can be thus compounded. A preposition, however, often becomes attached to a verb.

- 168. New stems are formed by composition, as follows:1
- a. The second part is simply added to the first: as, -

su-ove-taurilia (sūs, ovis, taurus), the sacrifice of a hog, sheep, and bull (cf. § 164. r).

septen-decim (septem, decem), seventeen.

b. The first part modifies the second as an adjective or adverb (Determinative Compounds): as,—

lāti-fundium (lātus, fundus), a large landed estate.

c. The first part has the force of a case, and the second a verbal force (Objective Compounds): as,—

agri-cola (ager, †cola akin to colō), a farmer.
armi-ger (arma, †ger akin to gerō), armor-bearer.
corni-cen (cornū, †cen akin to canō), horn-blower.
carni-fex (carō, †fex akin to factō), executioner.

In these compounds only the second part receives inflection, commonly the proper inflection of the last stem; but, as this kind of composition is older than inflection, the compounded stem sometimes has an inflection of its own (as, cornicen, -cinis; lūcifer, -ferī; iūdex, -dicis), from stems not occurring in Latin. Especially do compound adjectives take the form of i-stems: as, animus, exanimis; nōrma, abnōrmis (see note, p. 23). In composition stems regularly have their uninflected form: as, igni-spicium, divining by fire. But o- and a-stems weaken the final vowel of the stem to i-, as in āli-pēs (from āla); and i- is so common a termination of compounded stems, that it is often added to stems which do not properly have it: as, foederi-fragus (for †foeder-fragus: foedus, †fragus), treaty-breaking.

d. Compounds of the above kinds, in which the last word is a noun, acquire the signification of adjectives, meaning possessed of the quality denoted (Possessive Compounds): as,—

āli-pēs (āla, pēs), wing-footed.
māgn-animus (māgnus, animus), great-souled.
con-cors (con-, cor), harmonious.

an-ceps (amb-, caput), double (having a head at both ends).

Note. — Many compounds of the above classes appear only in the form

of some further derivative, the proper compound being not found in Latin.

169. In many apparent compounds, complete words—not stems—have grown together in speech.

These are not strictly compounds in the etymological sense. They are called Syntactic Compounds. Examples are —

- a. Compounds of facto, facto, with an actual or formerly existing noun-stem confounded with a verbal stem in e-. These are CAUSATIVE in force: as, consue-facto, habituate (cf. consue-sco, become accustomed); cale-facto, cale-facto, to heat (cf. cale-sco, grow warm).
- b. An adverb or noun combined with a verb: as, bene-dicō (bene dicō), to bless; sat-agō (satis agō), to be busy enough.
- c. Many apparent compounds: as, fidē-iubeō (fideī iubeō), to give surety; mān-suētus (manuī suētus), tame; Iūppiter (†Iūspater); Mārci-por (Mārcī puer), slave of Marcus.
 - d. A few phrases forced into the inflections of nouns: as, prō-cōnsul, proconsul (for prō cōnsule, instead of a consul). trium-vir, triumvir (singular from trium virōrum).
 - septen-triō, the Bear, a constellation (supposed singular of septem triōnēs, The Seven Oxen).
- 170. Many syntactic compounds are formed by prefixing a Particle to some other part of speech:—
- a. Prepositions are prefixed to Verbs or Adjectives and in these compounds retain their original adverbial sense: 1 as, —

¹The prepositions sometimes, however, especially ad, in, circum, trans, have their ordinary force as prepositions, and govern the case of a noun: as, transire flümen, to cross a river (see § 239. b. Rem.).

ā, ab, AWAY: au-ferre (ab-ferō), to take away.

ad, to, towards: af-ferre (ad-fero,), to bring.

ante, BEFORE: ante-ferre, to prefer; ante-cellere, to excel.

circum, AROUND: circum-munire, to fortify completely.

com-, con- (cum), Together or Forcibly: con-ferre, to bring together; col-locare, to set firm.

de, down, utterly: de-spicere, despise; destruere, destroy.

ē, ex, out: ef-ferre (ec-ferō), to carry forth, uplift.

in (with verbs), IN, ON, AGAINST: in-ferre, to bear against.

inter, BETWEEN, TO PIECES: inter-rumpere, to interrupt.

ob, TOWARDS, TO MEET: of-ferre, to offer; ob-venire, to meet.

 $\textbf{sub,} \ \ \textbf{UNDER:} \ \ \textbf{sub-struere}, \ \textit{to} \ \textit{build beneath}.$

super, UPON, OVER AND ABOVE: super-fluere, to overflow; superstes, a survivor.

Note. — In these compounds short a of the root is weakened to i before one consonant, to e before two: as, facio, conficio, confectus; iacio, eicio, eicetus. But long a is retained: as, peractus.

b. Verbs are also compounded with the following inseparable particles, which do not appear as prepositions in Latin:—

amb- (am-, an-), AROUND: amb-īre, to go about (cf. ἀμφί, about). dis-, dī-, ASUNDER, APART: dis-cēdere, to depart (cf. duo, two). por-, FORWARD: por-tendere, to hold forth, predict (cf. porrō, forth).

red., re., BACK, AGAIN: red-îre, to return; re-clūdere, to open (from claudō, shut); re-ficere, to repair (make again).

sēd-, sē-, APART: sē-cernō, to separate (cf. sed, but).

c. An Adjective is sometimes modified by an adverbial prefix.

Of these, per (less commonly prae), very; sub, somewhat; in-, not, are regular, and may be prefixed to almost any adjective: as, —

per-mägnus, very large.

prae-longus, very long.

sub-rusticus, rather clownish.

in-finitus, boundless.

Note. — Per and sub, in these senses, are also prefixed to verbs: as, perterreo, terrify; sub-rideo, smile. In ignosco, in-appears to be the negative prefix.

. d. Many Verbals are found compounded with a preposition, like the verbs to which they correspond. Thus, —

per-fuga, deserter; cf. per-fugio.

tradux, vine-branch; cf. trans-duco.

PART SECOND.—USE OF WORDS (SYNTAX).

INTRODUCTORY NOTE.

The study of formal grammar arose at a late period in the history of language, and deals with language as fully developed. The terms of Syntax correspond accordingly to the logical habits of thought that have grown up at such a period, and have therefore a logical as well as a simply grammatical meaning. But Syntax as thus developed is not essential to language. A form of words—like ō puerum pulcrum! oh! beautiful boy—may express a thought, and in some languages might even be a sentence, while it does not logically declare anything, and does not, strictly speaking, make what we call a sentence at all.

In the fully developed methods of expression to which we are almost exclusively accustomed, the unit of expression is the SENTENCE 1; that is, the completed statement, with its distinct Subject and Predicate. Originally every sentence is simple. But two simple sentences may be used together, without the subordination of either, to express a more complex form of thought than can be denoted by one alone. This is parataxis (arrangement side by side). In time, two sentences, thus habitually used in connection, come to be regularly associated with each other, in certain relations, as parts of one logical idea, and the one is felt to depend upon the other. This is syntaxis (arrangement together). In this way, through various courses of development, which correspond to the growth of our habitual forms of thought, there are produced various forms of complex sentences. Thus, timeo ne id accidat was originally two simple sentences: I fear. Let that not happen! and these, becoming attached, formed the complex sentence: I fear (lest) that may happen. The results of these processes constitute the subject-matter of Syntax as shown in the annexed Outline.

I. A SENTENCE may be either Simple or Compound: viz., -

1. SIMPLE:

{
 Containing a single statement (Subject and Predicate) (§ 180).

a. Containing two or more Co-ordinate Clauses (§ 180. a).

b. Modified by Subordinate Clauses (complex) (§ 180. b).

¹ The meaning of Sentence is "Thought" (sententia, from sentire). The grammatical form of the sentence is the form in which the thought is expressed.

- II. The Essential Parts of the Sentence are -
 - 1. The SUBJECT: consisting of

 (a. Noun or its equivalent (§ 174. 1).

 b. Pronoun contained in verb-ending (§ 174. 2).
 - 2. The PREDICATE: b. Copula with Predicate Noun or Adjective (§ 172. note).

 consisting of tive (§ 172. note).

 c. Verb with Object (§§ 175. b, 177).
- III. The Subject and Predicate may be Modified as follows:
 - a. Noun in Apposition (§ 184).
 b. Adjective or Participle (§ 186).
 c. Noun in Oblique Case (§ 178. a, b).
 d. Preposition with its case (§ 260).
 e. Relative Clause (§ 180. c).
 - 2. The Verb (predicate) by

 [a. Adverb or Adverbial Phrase (§§ 179, 207).

 [b. Predicate Adjective (§ 191).

 [c. Subordinate Clause (§ 180. b).
- IV. Hence: { a. Rules of AGREEMENT (the Four Concords) (§ 182). b. Rules of GOVERNMENT (Construction of Cases)(§§ 213 ff.).

THE SENTENCE.

1. Definitions.

- 171. A SENTENCE is a form of words which contains a Statement, a Ouestion, an Exclamation, or a Command.
- a. A sentence in the form of a Statement is called a DECLARATIVE SENTENCE: as, ecus currit, the horse runs.
- b. A sentence in the form of a Question is called an Interroga-TIVE SENTENCE: as, ecusive currit? does the horse run?
- c. A sentence in the form of an Exclamation is called an Exclamatory Sentence: as, quam celeriter currit ecus! how fast the horse runs!
- d. A sentence in the form of a Command, an Exhortation, or an Entreaty is called an IMPERATIVE SENTENCE: as, currat ecus, let the horse run; ī, curre per Alpēs, go run across the Alps.

172. Every sentence consists of a Subject and a Predicate.

The Subject of a sentence is the person or thing spoken of.

The Predicate is that which is said of the Subject.

Thus, in ecus currit, the horse runs, ecus is the subject, and currit the predicate.

Note. — Every complete sentence must contain a subject (§ 174) and a verb. The verb itself is usually the predicate, but when any form of sum is used simply to connect a noun or adjective as an attribute with the subject, such word is called the *predicate noun* or adjective, and sum is known as the copula (or connective) (§ 176. a). Thus, in Caesar consul erat, Caesar was consul, Caesar is the subject, consul the predicate noun, and erat the copula.

But sum in the sense of exist makes a complete predicate alone. It is then called the substantive verb: as, sunt virī fortēs, there are (exist) brave men.

2. Subject and Predicate.

178. I. (RULE 13.) The Subject of a Finite verb is in the Nominative Case: as,—

ecus currit, the horse runs.

rēgīna sedet, the queen sits.

2. (Rule 36.) The Subject of an Infinitive is in the Accusative (see § 240. f).

Note. — A finite verb is a verb in the Indicative, Subjunctive, or Imperative. These are called finite moods to distinguish them from the Infinitive.

174. I. The Subject of a sentence is usually a Noun or some word or phrase used as a Noun: as, —

humanum est errare, to err is human.

quaeritur num mors malum sit, the question is whether death is an evil. vēnit, incertum est unde, he came, where from is uncertain.

2. But in Latin the subject may be implied in the termination of the verb (see § 206. a, b): as,—

sedē-mus, we sit. curri-tis, you run.

inqui-t, says he

- 175. Verbs are either Intransitive or Transitive.
- a. An Intransitive (or Neuter) verb contains in itself an entire statement: as, —

cadō, I fall (am falling).

sol lucet, the sun is shining.

sunt viri fortes, there are brave men.

b. A Transitive (or Active) verb has or requires a Direct Object to complete its sense (see § 177): as,—

fratrem cecidit, he slew his brother. .

NOTE I. — Among transitive verbs FACTITATIVE VERBS are sometimes distinguished as a separate class. These state an act which produces the thing expressed by the word which completes their sense. Thus, mēnsam fēcit, he made a table (which was not in existence before), is distinguished from mēnsam percussit, he struck a table (which already existed).

NOTE 2.—A transitive verb may often be used absolutely without any object expressed: as, arat, he is ploughing, where the verb does not cease to be transitive because the object is left indefinite, as we see by adding,—quid, what? agrum suum, his land.

3. Predicate Noun.

176. An intransitive verb is often followed by a noun or adjective to describe or define the subject. This is called a Predicate Noun or Adjective: as,—

mortuus cecidit, he fell dead.

Quintus sedet iūdex, Quintus sits as judge.

Caesar victor incēdit, Casar advances victorious (a victor).

a. The copula sum, especially, is used with a predicate noun or adjective (see § 172. note). So, also, verbs signifying to become, to be made, to be named, to appear, whence these are called COPULATIVE (i.e. coupling) verbs.

Note. — A noun in agreement with some part of the predicate is sometimes called a Predicate Noun (see \S 185. ϵ).

b. A Predicate noun or adjective after the copula sum or a copulative verb is in the same case as the subject (see § 185. a).

Röma est patria nostra, Rome is our country.

stellae lücidae erant, the stars were bright (cf. stellae lücēbant).

consul creatus est, he was elected consul.

mors finis esse videtur, death seems to be the end.

dīcit non omnēs bonos esse beātos, he says that not all good men are happy.

4. Object.

177. The person or thing immediately affected by the action of a verb is called the DIRECT OBJECT.

A person or thing indirectly affected is called the Indirect Object.

Only transitive verbs can have a Direct Object; but an Indirect Object may be used with both transitive and intransitive verbs (§§ 225, 226). Thus,—

pater vocat filium (direct object), the father calls his son.

mihi (ind. obj.) agrum (dir. obj.) ostendit, he showed me a field.

mihi (ind. obj.) placet, it is pleasing to me.

Note. — The distinction between transitive and intransitive verbs is not fixed, but most transitive verbs may be used intransitively, and many verbs usually intransitive may take a direct object and so become transitive (§ 237. b).

a. When a transitive verb is changed from the Active to the Passive voice, the Direct Object becomes the Subject and is put in the nominative case: as, —

Active: pater filium vocat, the father calls [his] son.

Passive: filius a patre vocatur, the son is called by his father.

Active: lunam et stellas videmus, we see the moon and the stars.

Passive: luna et stellae videntur, the moon and stars are seen (appear).

b. With certain verbs, the Genitive, Dative, or Ablative is used where the English, from a difference in meaning, requires the Objective. Thus,—

hominem videō, I see the man (ACCUSATIVE).
hominī serviō, I serve the man (DATIVE, see § 227).
hominis misereor, I pity the man (GENITIVE, see § 221. a).
homine amīcō ūtor, I treat the man as a friend (ABLATIVE, see § 249).

c. Many verbs transitive in Latin are translated in English by an intransitive verb with a preposition: as. —

petit aprum, he aims at the boar. laudem affectat, he strives after praise. cūrat valētūdinem, he takes care of his health. Note. — One or more words, essential to the grammatical completeness of a sentence, but clear enough to the mind of a hearer, are often omitted. This omission is called ELLIPSIS, and the sentence is called an ELLIPTICAL SENTENCE: as, adest, he is here; quis? (sc. adest), who? miles (sc. adest), the soldier.

5. Modification.

178. A Subject or a Predicate may be modified by a single word, or by a group of words (a Phrase or a Clause, see §§ 179, 180).

The modifying word or group of words may itself be modified in the same way.

- a. A single modifying word may be an adjective, an adverb, an appositive (§ 184), or the oblique case of a noun. Thus, in the sentence vir fortis patienter fert, a brave man bears patiently, the adjective fortis, brave, modifies the subject vir, man, and the adverb patienter, patiently, modifies the predicate fert, bears.
- b. The modifying word is in some cases said to LIMIT the word to which it belongs. Thus, in the sentence pueri patrem video, I see the boy's father, the genitive pueri limits patrem (by excluding any other father).
- 179. A Phrase is a group of words, without subject or predicate of its own, which may be used as an Adjective or an Adverb.

Thus, in the sentence vir fuit summā nobilitāte, he was a man of the highest nobility, the words summā nobilitāte, of the highest nobility, are used for the adjective nobilis, noble (or nobilissimus, very noble), and are called an Adjective Phrase. In the sentence māgnā celeritāte vēnit, he came with great speed, the words māgnā celeritāte, with great speed, are used for the adverb celeriter, quickly (or celerimē, very quickly), and are called an Adverbial Phrase.

180. Sentences are either Simple or Compound.

A SIMPLE SENTENCE is a sentence containing a single statement.

A COMPOUND SENTENCE is a sentence containing more than one statement, and each single statement in it is called a CLAUSE.

a. If one statement is simply added to another, the clauses are said to be CO-ORDINATE. They are usually connected by a Co-ordinate Conjunction (§ 154. α); but this is sometimes omitted (§ 208. b). Thus, —

dīvide et imperā, divide and conquer. But, — vēnī, vīdī, vīcī, I came, I saw, I conquered.

b. If one statement modifies another in any way, the modifying clause is said to be SUBORDINATE, and the clause modified is called the MAIN CLAUSE.

This subordination is indicated by some connecting word, either a Subordinate Conjunction or a Relative (§ 154. b): as, —

oderint dum metuant, let them hate so long as they fear.

servum mīsit quem sēcum habēbat, he sent the slave whom he had with him.

A sentence containing one or more subordinate clauses is sometimes called COMPLEX.

Note. — A subordinate clause may itself be modified by another subordinate clause.

c. A clause introduced by a Relative pronoun or adverb is called a RELATIVE CLAUSE.

A clause introduced by an adverb of time is called a TEMPORAL CLAUSE. Thus, —

dum tacent clamant, while they are silent they cry aloud.

homines aegrī morbo gravī cum iactantur aestū febrīque, sī aquam gelidam biberint prīmo relevārī videntur, men suffering with a severe sickness, when they are tossing with the heat of fever, if they drink cold water, seem at first to be relieved.

d. A clause containing a Condition, introduced by sī, if, or some equivalent, is called a Conditional Clause. A sentence containing a conditional clause is called a Conditional Sentence.

Thus, sī aquam gelidam biberint, prīmō relevārī videntur is a Conditional Sentence, and sī... biberint is a Conditional Clause.

e. A clause expressing the Purpose of an action is called a FINAL or PURPOSE CLAUSE.

edō ut vīvam, I eat to live (that I may live).

mīsit lēgātōs qui dicerent, he sent ambassadors to say (who should say).

A clause expressing the Result of an action is called a Consecutive or Result Clause.¹

tam longē aberam ut non vidērem, I was too far away to see (so far away that I did n't see).

AGREEMENT.

- 181. A word is said to agree with another when it is required by usage to be in the same Gender, Number, Case, or Person.
- 182. The following are the general forms of Agreement, sometimes called the Four Concords:—
- I. The agreement of the NOUN in Apposition or as Predicate (§§ 184, 185).
 - 2. The agreement of the ADJECTIVE with its Noun (§ 186).
 - 3. The agreement of the RELATIVE with its Antecedents (§ 198).
 - 4. The agreement of the VERB with its Subject (§ 204).
- a. Synesis, or constructio ad sensum (construction according to sense) is a construction in which a word takes the gender or number, not of the word with which it should regularly agree, but of some other word implied in that word.

I. NOUNS.

188. (Rule 1.) A noun used to describe another, and denoting the same person or thing, agrees with it in Case: as,—

Servius rex, Servius the king.

ad urbem Athenas, to the city [of] Athens.

Cicero consul creatur, Cicero is chosen consul.

The descriptive noun may be either an Appositive (§ 184) or a Predicate noun (§ 185).

¹ Observe that the classes defined in a-e are not mutually exclusive, but that a single clause may belong to several of them at once. Thus, a relative clause is usually subordinate, and may be at the same time conditional; and subordinate clauses may be co-ordinate with each other.

z. Apposition.

- 184. The descriptive noun, when in the same part of the sentence with the noun described, is called an Appositive, and is said to be in Apposition: as,
 - externus timor, māximum concordiae vinculum, iungēbat animōs (Liv. ii. 39), fear of the foreigner, the chief bond of harmony, united their hearts. [Here the descriptive noun belongs to the subject.]
 - quattuor hīc prīmum omen equos vidi (Æn. iii. 537), I saw here four horses, the first omen. [Here both nouns are in the predicate.]
 - litterās Graecās senex didicī (Cat. M. 26), I learned Greek when an old man. [Here senex is in apposition with the omitted subject of didicī, and expresses the time, condition, etc., of the act.]
- a. Words expressing parts may be in apposition with a word including the parts, or vice versa: as,—

Gnaeus et Pūblius Scīpiones, Cneius and Publius, the Scipios.

- b. An appositive generally agrees in GENDER and NUMBER when it can: as,
 - secuntur nātūram, optimam ducem (Læl. 19), they follow nature, the best guide.
 - omnium doctrīnārum inventrīcēs Athēnās (De Or. i. 13), Athens, discoverer of all learning.
- c. A common noun in apposition with a Locative (§ 258. c) is put in the Ablative, with or without the preposition in: as,—
 - Antiochiae, celebri quondam urbe (Arch. 4), at Antioch, once a famous city.
 - Albae constiterunt in urbe munita (Phil. iv. 6), they halted at Alba, a fortified town.
- d. A possessive pronoun or an adjective implying possession may take an appositive in the genitive case agreeing in gender, number, and case with an implied noun or pronoun (§ 197. e): as,—

in nostro omnium fletu (Mil. 92), amid the tears of us all.

ex Anniānā Milonis domo (Att. iv. 3) [= ex Annī Milonis domo], out of Annius Milo's house.

2. Predicate Agreement.

The Predicate noun may agree (1) with the subject, being connected with it by the copula or a copulative verb (§ 176. a), or (2) with the direct object of a verb.

- 185. A descriptive noun used to form a predicate is called a Predicate Nominative (or other case, according to the construction).
- a. The case of the predicate after the copula and copulative verbs is the same as that of the subject (§ 176. b): as,—

pācis semper auctor fuī (Lig. 28), I have always been an adviser of peace.

quae pertinācia quibusdam, eadem aliīs constantia vidērī potest (Marc. 31), what may seem obstinacy to some, may seem to others consistency.

ēius mortis sedētis ultorēs (Mil. 79), you sit as avengers of his death. ego patronus exstitī (Rosc. Am. 5), I have come forward as an advocate.

b. A predicate noun referring to two or more singular nouns is in the plural: as, —

consules creantur Caesar et Servilius (B. C. iii. 1), Casar and Servilius are elected consuls.

c. For Predicate Accusative, see under that case, § 239. a.

II. ADJECTIVES.

1. Rules of Agreement.

186. (Rule 2.) Adjectives, Adjective Pronouns, and Participles agree with their nouns in *Gender*, *Number*, and *Case*.

vir fortis, a brave man.

illa mulier, that woman.

urbium māgnārum, of great cities.

cum ducentīs mīlitibus, with 200 soldiers.

imperātor victus est, the general was beaten.

Note. — All rules for the agreement of adjectives apply also to adjective pronouns and to participles.

Adjectives are either Attributive or Predicate.

a. An Attributive adjective simply qualifies its noun without the intervention of a verb or participle, expressed or implied.

bonus imperator, a good commander. stellae lücidae, bright stars.

- b. All other adjectives are called Predicate adjectives.
- 1. A predicate adjective, like a predicate noun, may be connected with the subject by esse or a copulative verb expressed or implied (see § 176. a): as,—

stellae lūcidae erant, the stars were bright.

- 2. After verbs of *naming*, calling, making, etc., an adjective may be used as a predicate accusative like a noun (see § 239. a).
- 3. A predicate adjective may be used in apposition like a noun (see c, below).
- c. Predicate adjectives in apposition follow the rules of agreement of other adjectives (see § 186, above): as,—

Scīpionem vivum vidī, I saw Scipio in his lifetime (lit. living).

d. With two or more nouns the adjective is regularly plural, but sometimes agrees with the nearest (especially when attributive). Thus,—

Nīsus et Euryalus prīmī (Æn. v. 294), Nisus and Euryalus first. Caesaris omnī et grātiā et opibus fruor (Fam. i. 9, 21), I enjoy all Casar's favor and resources.

- 187. One adjective may belong in sense to two or more nouns of different genders.
 - a. In such cases —
 - 1. An attributive adjective agrees with the nearest noun: as, multae operae ac laboris, of much trouble and toil.

vīta morēsque mei, my life and character.

- sī rēs, sī vir, sī tempus tillum, dīgnum fuit (Mil. 19), if any thing, if any man, if any time was fit.
- 2. A predicate adjective may agree with the nearest, if the nouns form one connected idea: as,—

factus est strepitus et admurmurātiō (Verr. i. 45), a noise of assent was made (noise and murmur).

Note. — This is only when the Copula agrees with the nearest subject (\S 205. d).

b. But generally a predicate adjective will be masculine, if nouns of different genders mean living beings; neuter, if things without life: as,—

uxor deinde āc līberī amplexī (Liv. ii. 40), then his wife and children embraced him.

labor (M.) voluptāsque (F.), societāte quādam inter sē nātūrālī sunt iūncta (N.) (id. v. 4), labor and delight are bound together by a certain natural alliance.

Note.—If nouns of different genders include both male beings and things without life, a predicate adjective is sometimes masculine, sometimes neuter, and sometimes agrees in gender with the nearest if that is plural: as,—

rex regiaque classis una profecti (Liv. xxi. 50), the king and the royal fleet set out together.

nătūrā inimīca sunt lībera cīvitās et rēx (id. xliv. 24), by nature a free state and a king are hostile.

lēgātos sortēsque orāculi exspectandās (id. v. 15), that the ambassadors and the replies of the oracle should be waited for.

c. Two or more abstract nouns of the same gender may have a predicate adjective in the neuter plural (cf. § 189. c): as,—

stultitia et timiditās et iniūstitia . . . sunt fugienda (Fin. iii. 39), folly, rashness, and injustice are [things] to be shunned.

d. A collective noun may take an adjective of a different gender and number agreeing with the gender and number of the individuals implied (Synesis, § 182. a): as,—

pars certare parati (Æn. v. 108), a part ready to contend. duo milia relicti (Liv. xxxvii. 39), two thousand were left.

2. Adjectives used Substantively.

188. Adjectives are often used as Nouns (substantively), the masculine usually to denote men or people in general of that kind, the feminine women, and the neuter things: as,—

omnēs, all men (everybody). mājorēs, ancestors. Romānī, Romans. omnia, all things (everything). minores, descendants. barbari, barbarians.

REMARK. — The plural of adjectives, pronouns, and participles is very common in this use. The singular is rare except in a few words which have become practically nouns. See below and § 189. a.

a. Certain adjectives have become practically nouns, and are often modified by other adjectives. Thus, —

tuus vīcīnus proximus, your next-door neighbor. propīnquī cēterī, his other relatives.

b. When any ambiguity would arise from the substantive use of an adjective, a noun must be added. Thus, —

bonī, the good; omnia, everything (all things); but — potentia omnium rērum, power over everything. [omnium alone would mean all men.]

c. Many adjectives are used substantively either in the singular or the plural, with the added meaning of some noun which is understood from constant association: as,—

Africus [ventus], the south-west wind. vitulīna [carō], veal (calf's flesh). fera [bestia], a wild beast. patria [terra], the fatherland.

d. A noun is sometimes used as an adjective, and may then be modified by an adverb: as, —

victor exercitus, the victorious army. servum pecus, a servile troop. admodum puer, quite a boy (young). magis vir, more of a man (more manly).

- e. A few adverbs appear to be used like adjectives. Such are —
- I. obviam: as, --

fit obviam, he goes to meet (becomes in the way of).

2. contrā, contradicting some previous adjective, and so in a manner repeating it: as,—

alia probabilia, contră alia dicimus (Off. ii. 7), we call some things probable, others the opposite (not probable).

3. palam: as,—

palam res est, the thing is all out.

- 189. Neuter adjectives are used substantively in the following special senses:—
- a. The neuter singular may denote either a single object or an abstract quality: as,—

raptō vīvere, to live by plunder. in āridō, on dry ground.

b. The neuter plural is used to signify objects in general having the quality denoted, and hence may stand for the abstract idea: as,—

honesta, honorable deeds (in general).

omnēs fortia laudant, all men praise bravery (brave things).

c. A neuter adjective may be used as an appositive or predicate noun with a noun of different gender (cf. § 187. c): as,—

trīste lupus stabulīs, the wolf is a grievous thing for the sheepfold.

varium et mūtābile semper fēmina, woman is ever a changing and fickle
thing.

d. A neuter adjective is used in agreement with an Infinitive or a Substantive Clause: as,—

istūc ipsum non esse (Tusc. i. 12), that very "not to be."

hūmānum est errāre, to err is human.

aliud est errare Caesarem nolle, aliud nolle misereri (Lig. 16), it is one thing to be unwilling that Caesar should err, another to be unwilling that he should pity.

3. Possessives.

190. Possessive and other derivative adjectives are often used in Latin where the English has the possessive case, or a noun with a preposition (cf. §§ 184. d, 197. a): as,—

pugna Cannensis, the fight at Canna.

C. Blossius Cumanus, Caius Blossius of Cuma.

aliena domus, another man's house.

a. Possessive and other derivative adjectives are often used substantively to denote some special class or relation (see § 197. d): as,—

nostrī, our countrymen or men of our party. Sullānī, the veterans of Sulla's army.

4. Adjectives with Adverbial Force.

191. An adjective agreeing with the subject or object is often used to qualify the action of the verb, having the force of an adverb: as,—

prīmus vēnit, he came first (was the first to come).

laetī audiēre, they were glad to hear.

erat Romae frequens (Rosc. Am. 16), he was often at Rome.

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5. Comparatives and Superlatives.

192. When two qualities of an object are compared, both adjectives are in the comparative: as,—

longior quam latior acies erat (Liv. xxvii. 48), the line was longer than it was broad (or, rather long than broad).

- a. Where magis is used, both adjectives are in the positive: as, clari magis quam honesti (Jug. 8), more renowned than honorable.
- 198. (RULE 5.) Superlatives (and more rarely comparatives) denoting order and succession—also medius, cēterus, relicus—usually designate not what object, but what part of it, is meant: as,—

summus mons, the top of the hill.

reliqui captīvī, the rest of the prisoners.

in colle medio (B. G. i. 24), half way up the hill (on the middle of the hill).

NOTE. — A similar use is found in such expressions as sērā (multā) nocte, late at night. But medium viae, the middle of the way; multum diēī, much of the day, also occur.

III. PRONOUNS.

1. Personal Pronouns.

- 194. The Personal Pronouns have, in general, the same constructions as nouns.
- a. The personal pronouns are not expressed as subjects, except for distinction or emphasis (compare \S 346. d): as,—

tē vocō, I call you; but

quis mē vocat? ego tē vocō, who is calling me? I (emphatic) am calling you.

b. (RULE 6.) The personal pronouns have two forms for the genitive plural, that in -um being used partitively (§ 216), and that in -i oftenest objectively (cf. § 213. 2): as,—

māior vestrūm, the elder of you.

habētis ducem memorem vestrī, oblītum suī (Cat. iv. 19), you have a leader who thinks (is mindful) of you and forgets (is forgetful of) himself.

pars nostrūm, a part (i.e. some) of us.

Note. — The genitives nostrūm, vestrūm are occasionally used objectively (§ 217): as, cupidus vestrūm (Verr. iii. 224), fond of you; custos vestrūm (Cat. iii. 29), the guardian of you (your guardian).

2. Demonstrative Pronouns.

195. Demonstrative pronouns are used either adjectively or substantively.

As adjectives, they follow the rules for the agreement of adjectives (§§ 186, 187).

As substantives, they are equivalent to personal pronouns. This use is regular in the oblique cases, especially of is. Thus,—

1. Personal: -

Caesar et exercitus eius, Cæsar and his army (not suus). [But, Caesar exercitum suum dimisit, Cæsar disbanded his [own] army.] his Caesar ita respondit, to them Cæsar thus replied.

2. Adjective: --

hōc proeliō factō, after this battle was fought (this battle having been, etc.). eōdem proeliō, in the same battle.

[For special significations of the demonstratives, see § 102.]

a. The demonstratives are sometimes used as pronouns of reference, to indicate with emphasis a noun or phrase just mentioned: as, —

nüllam virtüs aliam mercēdem dēsīderat praeter hanc laudis (Arch. 28), virtue wants no other reward except that [just spoken of] of praise.

b. But the demonstrative as a pronoun of reference is commonly omitted, or some other construction is preferred: as,—

memoriae artem quam oblīvionis mālo, I prefer (like more) the art of memory to (than) [that] of forgetfulness.

c. When a quality or act is ascribed with emphasis to a person or thing already named, is or idem (often with the concessive quidem) is used to indicate that person or thing: as,—

vincula, et ea sempiterna (Cat. iv. 7), imprisonment, and that perpetual. legionem neque eam plenissimam despiciebant (B. G. iii. 2), they despised the single legion, and that not a very full one.

tuus dolor hūmānus is quidem sed, etc., your grief is human, to be sure, but, etc.

- d. An adjective pronoun usually agrees with an appositive or predicate noun, if there be one, rather than with the word to which it refers (cf. § 199): as,
 - hic labor hoc opus est, this is the toil, this the task [namely, revocare gradum, which would regularly take a neuter pronoun].
- e. Idem, the same, is often equivalent to an adverb or adverbial phrase (also, too, yet, at the same time): as,
 - ōrātiō splendida et grandis et eadem in prīmīs facēta (Brut. 273), an oration, brilliant, able, and very witty, too.
- f. The intensive **ipse**, self, is used with any of the other pronouns or a noun for the sake of emphasis: as,—

turpe mihi ipsī vidēbātur (Cic.), even to me (to me myself) it seemed disgraceful.

id ipsum, that very thing.

REMARK. — The emphasis of ipse is often expressed in English by just, very, mere, etc. (see above examples).

g. Ipse is often used alone, substantively, as an emphatic pronoun of the third person: as,—

mihi satis, ipsīs non satis (Cic.), enough for me, not for themselves.

beātōs illōs quī cum adesse ipsīs non licēbat aderant tamen (id.), happy they who, when it was not allowed them to attend in person, still were there.

- di capiti ipsius generique reservent (Æn. vii. 484), may the gods hold in reserve [such a fate] to fall on his own and his son-in-law's head.
- h. Ipse is often used alone, substantively, to emphasize an omitted subject of the first or second person: as,—

vōbīscum ipsī recordāminī (Cic.), remember in your own minds (your selves with yourselves).

i. Ipse, used substantively, sometimes refers to a principal personage, to distinguish him from subordinate persons: as, —

ipse dīxit (cf. αὐτὸς ἔφα), HE (the Master) said it.

- k. Ipse is often (is rarely) used instead of a reflexive. (Cf. § 196. i.)
- 1. Ipse usually agrees with the subject, even when the real emphasis is in English on a reflexive in the predicate: as,—

mē ipse consolor, I console myself. [Not mē ipsum.)

3. Reflexive Pronouns.

196. (RULE 7.) The Reflexive pronoun (\$\overline{6}\$),¹ and usually its corresponding possessive (suus), are used in some part of the predicate to refer to the subject of the sentence or clause: as,—

virtūs sē novit, virtue knows itself. promīsit sē ventūrum [esse], he promised that he would come. Brūtus amīcum suum occīdit, Brutus killed his friend.

- a. In a subordinate clause of a compound sentence there is a double use of reflexives.
- 1. The Reflexive may always be used to refer to the subject of its own clause (*Direct Reflexive*): as,
 - ex quō iūdicārī potest quantum habeat in sē bonī cōnstantia (B. G. i. 40), from which it can be determined how much good firmness possesses (has in itself).
 - [Caesar] noluit eum locum vacare, ne Germani e suis sinibus transirent (B. G. i. 28), Caesar did not wish this place to lie vacant, for fear the Germans would cross over from their territories.
- 2. If the subordinate clause expresses the words or thought of the subject of the main clause, the reflexive is regularly used to refer to that subject (*Indirect Reflexive*): as,—

petiërunt ut sibi liceret (B. G. i. 30), they begged that it might be allowed them (the petitioners).

- Iccius nüntium ad eum mittit, nisi subsidium sibi submittätur, etc. (B. G. ii. 6), sends him a message that unless relief be furnished him (Iccius), etc.
- sī obsidēs ab eis (the Helvetians) sibi (Cæsar, who is the speaker) dentur, sē (Cæsar) cum eis pācem esse factūrum (B. G. i. 14), [Cæsar said] that if hostages were given him by them, he would make peace with them.
- Note. Sometimes is or ipse is used as an Indirect Reflexive either from careless writing or to avoid ambiguity (cf. i): as,
 - quī sē ex hīs minus timidōs exīstimārī vellent, nōn sē hostem verērī, sed angustiās itineris et māgnitūdinem silvārum quae intercēderent inter
- ¹ This seems to have been originally the personal pronoun of the third person, but it came by use to be purely reflexive.

- ipsos (the persons referred to by so above) atque Ariovistum... timere dicebant (B. G. i. 39), those of them who wished to be thought less timid said they did not fear the enemy, but were afraid of the narrows and the vast extent of the forests which were between themselves and Ariovistus.
- audīstis nūper dīcere lēgātōs Tyndaritānōs Mercurium quī sacrīs anniversāriīs apud eōs colerētur Verris imperiō esse sublātum (Verr. iv. 84), you have just heard the ambassadors from Tyndaris say that the statue of Mercury which was worshipped with annual rites among them was taken away, etc. [Here Cicero wavers between apud eōs colēbātur, a remark of his own, and apud sē colerētur, the words of the lēgātī. eōs does not strictly refer to the ambassadors, but to the people—the Tyndaritānī.]
- 3. If the subordinate clause does not express the words or thought of the main subject, the reflexive is not regularly used, though it is occasionally found. Thus,
 - sunt ita multī ut eōs carcer capere nōn possit (Cat. ii. 22), they are so many that the prison cannot hold them. [Here sē could not be used.]
 - ibi in proximīs villīs ita bipartītō fuērunt, ut Tiberis inter eōs et pōns interesset (Cat. iii. 5), there they stationed themselves in the nearest farmhouses, in two divisions, in such a manner that the Tiber and the bridge were between them (the divisions). [Here inter sē might be used, but it would refer to a purpose of the soldiers.]
- b. The reflexive in a subordinate clause sometimes refers to the subject of a suppressed main clause: as,—
 - Paetus, omnēs libros quos frāter suus relīquisset mihi donāvit (Att. ii. 1, 12), Paetus gave me all the books which (as he said in the act of donation) his brother had left (him).
- c. The reflexive may refer to any noun in its own clause which is so emphasized as to become in a manner the *subject of discourse* (cf. the note): as,
 - Socratem cives sui interfecerunt, Socrates was put to death by his own fellow-citizens.
 - qui poterat salūs sua cuiquam non probārī (Mil. 81), how can any one fail to approve his own safety? [In this and the preceding example the emphasis is preserved in English by the change to the passive.]
 - hunc sī secūtī erunt suī comitēs (Cat. ii. 10), this man, if his companions follow him.
- Note. Occasionally the clause to which the reflexive really belongs is absorbed : as, $\,$

studeo sanare sibi ipsos (Cat. ii. 17), I am anxious to cure these men for their own benefit (i.e. ut sani sibi sint).

suō sibi gladiō (Plautus), with his own sword. [Here the clause is too indefinite to be supplied.]

d. The reflexive may follow a verbal noun or adjective: as, — sui laus, self-praise.

impotens sui (Q. C.), without self-control.

e. The reflexive may refer to the subject implied in an infinitive or verbal abstract used indefinitely: as, —

bellum est sua vitia nosse (Cic.), it is a fine thing to know one's own faults.

cui proposita sit conservatio sui (Fin. v. 37), one whose aim is self-preservation.

f. Inter sē, among themselves, is regularly used to express reciprocal action: as, —

cohaerentia inter se, things consistent with each other.

g. Suus is used for one's own as emphatically opposed to that of others, in any part of the sentence and with reference to any word in it: as.—

suis flammis delete Fidenas (Liv. iv. 33), destroy Fidena with its own fires (the fires kindled by that city, figuratively). [Cf. Cat. i. 32.]

h. For reflexives of the first and second persons the oblique cases of the personal pronouns (meī, tuī, etc.) are used (see § 98. 2, a): as, — mortī mē obtulī (Mil. 94), I have exposed myself to death.

hinc to reginae ad limina perfer (Æn. i. 389), do you go (bear yourself) hence to the queen's threshold.

i. Ipse is often (is rarely) used instead of an indirect reflexive, to avoid ambiguity; and in later writers is sometimes found instead of the direct reflexive (cf. a. 2 and 3): as,—

cūr dē suā virtūte aut dē ipsīus dīligentiā dēspērārent (B. G. i. 40), why (he asked) should they despair of their own courage or his diligence?

4. Possessive Pronouns.

197. The Possessive pronouns are derivative adjectives, which take the gender, number, and case of the noun to which they belong, not those of the possessor: as,—

Caesar uxorem suam repudiavit, Casar put away his wife.

haec sunt mea ornamenta, these are my jewels. [mea is neut. pl., though the speaker is a woman.]

- a. (RULE 8.) The possessive pronouns are used instead of the genitive of a personal pronoun.
 - 1. Always instead of the Possessive Genitive: as, -

domus mea, my house. [Never domus mei.] pater noster, our father. [Never pater nostri.]

NOTE 1. — In different languages the ideas associated with possessives are not always the same, and hence idiomatic uses differ. Thus my culogist may, in Latin, be laudātor nostrī (Att. i. 14, 6), or, like the English, laudātor noster (see Att. i. 16, 5), with a different conception of the relation.

NOTE 2. — The possessive cūius, -a, -um, is rare: as, cūium pecus? whose flock? The genitive cūius is generally used instead.

2. Rarely instead of the Objective Genitive. Thus, regularly, suī dēspiciēns, disdainful of himself.

non solum sui deprecatorem, sed etiam accusatorem mei, not only a mediator for himself, but an accuser of me (Att. xi. 8).

But occasionally, ---

- ea quae faciëbat, tuā sē fīdūciā facere dīcēbat (Verr. v. 176), what he was doing, he said he did relying on you (with your reliance).
- b. The possessives have often the acquired meaning of peculiar to, or favorable or propitious towards the person or thing spoken of: as,—

[petere] ut sua clementia ac mansuetudine utatur, they asked (they said) that he would show his [wonted] clemency and humanity.

ignoranti quem portum petat nüllus suus ventus est (Sen. Ep. 71. 3), to him who knows not what port he is bound to, no wind is fair (his own).

- c. The possessives are regularly omitted (like other pronouns) when they are plainly implied in the context: as,
 - amīcum grātulātur, he greets his friend. [amīcum suum would be distinctive, his friend (and not another's); suum amīcum, emphatic, his own friend.]
 - d. Possessives are often used substantively (§ 190. a): as,—
 nostrī, our countrymen, or men of our party.
 suōs continēbāt (B. G. i. 15), he held his men in check.
 flamma extrēma meōrum (Æn. ii. 431), last flames of my countrymen.
- e. (RULE 9.) A possessive representing a genitive may have a genitive in apposition (§ 184. d): as,—

meā solīus causā, for my sake only.
nostra omnium patria, the country of us all.

5. Relative Pronouns.

Note. — A Relative pronoun is properly an Adjective, in agreement with some word expressed or implied either in its own clause, or (often) in the antecedent (demonstrative) clause. The full construction would require the antecedent to be expressed in both clauses, with more commonly a corresponding demonstrative to which the relative would refer: as, —

iter in ea loca facere coepit, quibus in locis esse Germanos audiebat (B. G. iv. 7), he began to march into those PLACES in which PLACES he heard the Germans were.

Relatives serve two uses : -

- I. as Nouns (or adjectives) in their own clause: as, —
 eī quī Alesiae obsidēbantur, those who were besieged at Alesia.
- 2. as Connectives: as. —
- T. Balventio, qui superiore anno primum pilum duxerat, Titus Balventio, who the year before had been a centurion of the first rank.

In this latter use they are often equivalent merely to a demonstrative: as, — quae cum ita sint (= cum ea ita sint), since these things are so.

197a. A Relative pronoun indicates a relation between its own clause and some substantive. This substantive is called the Antecedent of the relative.

Thus, in the sentence -

eum nihil delectabat, quod fas esset, nothing pleased him which was right, the relative quod connects its antecedent nihil with the predicate fas esset, indicating a relation between the two.

198. (Rule 3.) A Relative agrees with its Antecedent in Gender and Number; but its Case depends on the construction of the clause in which it stands: as,—

puer qui venit abiit, the boy who came has gone away.

liber quem legis meus est, the book you are reading is mine.

via qua ambulat ducit ad urbem, the path he walks in leads to the city."

This rule applies to all relative words so far as they are variable in form: as, quālis, quantus, quīcumque.

Note. — The relative may be the subject or object in its own clause, or a modifier of either: as, —

eos enim cīvēs pūgna illa sustulerat quibus non modo vīvīs sed etiam victoribus incolumis et florēns cīvitās esse posset (Phil. xiv. 23).

- a. If a relative has two or more antecedents, it follows the rules for the agreement of predicate adjectives (§§ 186, 187): as,
 - filium et filiam, quos valde dilexit, uno tempore amisit, he lost a son and a daughter at the same time, whom he dearly loved.
 - ōtium atque dīvitiae quae prīma mortālēs putant (Sall. Cat. 36), idleness and wealth which men count the first (objects of desire).
- 199. A relative generally agrees in gender and number with an appositive or predicate noun in its own clause, rather than with an antecedent of different gender or number (cf. § 195. d): as,
 - mare etiam quem Neptūnum esse dīcēbās (N. D. iii. 52), the sea, too, which you said was Neptune. [Not quod.]
 - Thebae ipsae, quod Boeotiae caput est (Liv. xlii. 44), even Thebes, which is the chief city of Baotia. [Not quae.]
 - NOTE. This rule is occasionally violated: as, -
 - flumen quod appellatur Tamesis (B. G. v. 11), a river which is called the Thames.
- a. A relative occasionally agrees with its antecedent in case (by attraction): as,
 - sī aliquid agās eðrum quðrum consuēstī (Fam. v. 14), if you should do something of what you are used to do. [For eðrum quae.]
- b. A relative may agree in gender and number with an implied antecedent: as,
 - quartum genus . . . qui aere vetere alieno vacillant (Cat. ii. 21), a fourth class, that are staggering under old debts.
- NOTE. So regularly when the antecedent is implied in a possessive pronoun: as,
 - nostra qui adsumus salūs, the safety of us who are present. [Here qui agrees with the nostrūm implied in nostra.]
- 200. The antecedent noun sometimes appears in both clauses; but usually only in the one that precedes. Sometimes it is wholly omitted. Thus,
 - a. The antecedent may be repeated in the relative clause: as,—
 locī nātūra erat haec quem locum nostrī dēlēgerant (B. G. ii. 18), the
 nature of the ground which our men had chosen was this.

- b. The antecedent may appear only in the relative clause: as, -
- quās rēs in consulātu nostro gessimus attigit hīc versibus (Arch. 28), he has touched in verse the things which I did in my consulship.
- urbem quam statuō vestra est (Æn. i. 573), the city which I am founding is yours.
- Note. In this case a demonstrative (is, ille, or hic) usually stands in the antecedent clause: as,
 - quae pars cīvitātis calamitātem populō Rōmānō intulerat, ea prīnceps poenās persolvit (B. G. i. 12), that part of the state which had brought disaster on the Roman people was the first to pay the penalty.
- c. The antecedent may be entirely omitted, especially if it is indefinite: as,
 - qui decimae legionis aquilam ferebat (B. G. iv. 25), [the man] who bore the eagle of the tenth legion.
 - quī cōgnōscerent mīsit (id. i. 21), he sent [men] to reconnoitre (who should, etc.).
- d. A predicate adjective (especially a superlative) agreeing with its antecedent in gender and number may stand in the relative clause: as,
 - vasa ea quae pulcherrima apud eum viderat (Verr. iv. 63), those most beautiful vessels which he had seen at his house. [Nearly equivalent to the vessels of which he had seen some very beautiful ones.]
- e. The phrase id quod or quae res is used (instead of quod alone) to refer to a group of words or an idea:—
 - [obtrēctātum est] Gabīniō dīcam anne Pompēiō? an utrīque id quod est vērius? (Manil. 57), an affront is offered shall I say to Gabinius or to Pompey? or which is truer to both?
 - multum sunt in vēnātiōnibus . . . quae rēs vīrēs alit (B. G. iv. I), they spend much time in hunting, which [practice] increases their strength. [Cf. B. G. ii. 5.]
 - Note. But quod alone often occurs: as, -
 - Cassius noster, quod mihi māgnae voluptātī fuit, hostem reiēcerat (Fam. ii. 10), our friend Cassius which was a great satisfaction to me—had driven back the enemy.
- 201. In the use of relatives, the following points are to be observed:—
- a. The relative is never omitted in Latin, as it often is in English. Thus, —

liber quem mihi dedistī, the book you gave me.
is sum qui semper fuī. I am the same man I always was.

b. A relative clause in Latin often takes the place of some other construction in English; particularly of a participle, an appositive, or a noun of agency: as, —

lēgēs quae nunc sunt, the existing laws (the laws which now exist).

Caesar quī Galliam vīcit, Cæsar the conqueror of Gaul (who conquered Gaul).

c. In formal or emphatic discourse, the relative clause usually comes first, often containing the antecedent noun (cf. \S 200. b): as,—

quae mala cum multīs patimur, ea nōbīs leviōra videntur, the evils we suffer [in common] with many, seem to us lighter.

d. The antecedent, when in apposition with the main clause, or with some word of it, is put in the relative clause: as, —

firm amīcī, cūius generis est māgna pēnūria, steadfast friends, a class of which there is a great lack (of which class).

e. A relative may stand (even with another relative or an interrogative) at the beginning of a sentence or clause, where in English a demonstrative must be used: as,—

quae quī audiēbant, and those who heard this (which things). quae cum ita sint, and since these things are so. quōrum quod simile factum (Cat. iv. 13), what deed of theirs like this?

f. 1. A relative adverb is regularly used in referring to an antecedent in the Locative case: as,—

mortuus Cūmīs quō sē contulerat (Liv. ii. 21), having died at Cumæ, whither he had retired. [Here in quam urbem might be used, but not in quās.]

2. So, often, to express any relation of place instead of the formal relative pronoun (cf. whence, whereto, wherewith): as, —

locus quo aditus non erat, a place to which (whither) there was no access. regna, unde genus ducis, the kingdom from which you derive your race.

g. The relatives qui, qualis, quantus, quot, etc., are often rendered simply by AS^1 in English (§ 106. b): as,—

idem quod semper, the same as always.

tālis dux quālem Hannibalem novimus, such a chief as we know Hannibal (to have been).

¹ The English as in this use is strictly a relative, though invariable in form.

k. The general construction of relatives is found in clauses introduced by relative or temporal adverbs: as, ubi, quō, unde, cum, quārē.

6. Indefinite Pronouns.

202. The Indefinite pronouns are used to indicate that some person or thing is meant, without designating what one.

Note. — For the meanings of the compounds of qui and quis, see § 105.

a. Of the particular indefinites meaning some or any (quis, quispiam, nesciō quis, aliquis, quidam), the simple quis is least definite, quidam most definite: as,—

dixerit quis (quispiam), some one may say.

aliqui philosophi ita putant, some philosophers think so. [quidam would mean certain particular persons defined to the speaker's mind.]

habitant hīc quaedam mulierēs pauperculae, some poor women live here [i.e. some women he knows of; some women or other would be aliquae or nesciō quae].

b. In a particular negative aliquis (aliqui) is regularly used, where in a universal negative quisquam (subst.) or ullus (adj.) would be required: as,—

iūstitia numquam nocet cuiquam quī eam habet (Cic.), justice never does harm to anybody who possesses it. [alicui would mean to somebody who possesses it.]

sine aliquo metu, [you cannot do this] without some fear.

sine üllö metü, [you may do this] without any fear.

Note. — These pronouns are used in like manner in conditional and other sentences (§ 105. h): as, —

sī quisquam, ille sapiēns fuit (Læl. 9), if any man was (ever) a sage, he was.

dum praesidia ülla fuērunt (Rosc. Am. 126), while there were any armed forces (till they ceased to be).

c. Of the general indefinites, quivis and quilibet (any you will), utervis (either you will, of two), are used chiefly in affirmative, quisquam and ullus (any at all) in negative, interrogative, or conditional clauses: as,—

cuivīs potest accidere quod cuiquam potest, what can happen to any [one] man can happen to any man [whatever].

non cuivis homini contingit adire Corinthum, it is not every man's luck to go to Corinth. [non cuiquam would mean not any man's.]

minus habeō vīrium quam vestrūm utervīs, I have less strength than either of you.

quidlibet modo aliquid (Cic.), anything you will, provided it be something. cur cuiquam mīsī prius, why did I send to anybody before [you]?

d. The distributives quisque (every), uterque (each), and unus quisque (every single one) are used in general assertions. They are equivalent to a plural, and sometimes have a plural verb (cf. § 205. c. 2): as,—

bonus liber melior est quisque quō māior, the larger a good book is, the better (each good book is better [in the same measure] as it is larger). ambō exercitūs suās quisque abeunt domōs, both armies go away, every man to his home.

uterque utrique erat exercitus in conspectu, each army was in sight of the other (each to each).

ponite ante oculos unumquemque regum, set before your eyes each of the kings.

e. Quisque is regularly placed in a dependent clause, if there is one: quo quisque est sollertior, hoc docet īrācundius (Rosc. Com. 31), the keener-witted a man is, the more impatiently he teaches (as each is so, etc.).

Note. — Quisque is generally post-positive. Thus, suum cuique, to every man his own.

f. Nemo, no one, is used: either

As a substantive: as, —

nēmo fit repentē turpissimus, no one suddenly becomes absolutely base.

As an adjective pronoun: as, --

vir nēmō bonus (Leg. ii. 41), no good man.

Note. — Even when used as a substantive, nēmō may take a noun in apposition: as, —

nēmō scrīptor, nobody [who is] a writer.

7. Allus and Alter.

208. The expressions alter, ... alter, the one ... the other, alius ... alius, one ... another, may be used in pairs to denote either division of a group or reciprocity of action: as, —

arma ab aliis posita ab aliis ērepta sunt (Marc. 31), arms were laid down by some and were snatched from others.

alteri dimicant, alteri victorem timent (Fam. vi. 3), one party fights, the other fears the victor.

hī frātrēs alter alterum amant, these brothers love one another. alius alium percontāmur, we ask each other.

a. Alius means simply other, another (of an indefinite number); alter, the other (of two), often the second in a series; cēterī and reliquī, all the rest, the others; alteruter, one of the two. Thus,—

quid aliud agis, what else are you doing (what other thing)?

uni epistulae respondi, venio ad alteram (Fam. ii. 17. 6), one letter I have answered, I come to the other.

alterum genus (Cat. ii. 19), the second class.

iecissem ipse me potius in profundum ut ceteros conservarem (Sest. 45), I should have rather thrown myself into the deep to save the rest.

Servilius consul, reliquique magistratus (B. C. iii. 21), Servilius the consul and the rest of the magistrates.

cum sit necesse alterutrum vincere (Fam. vi. 3), when it must be that one of the two should prevail.

b. Alius and alter are often used to express one as well as another (the other) of the objects referred to: as,—

alter consulum, one of the [two] consuls.

aliud est maledicere, aliud accusare (Cic.), it is one thing to slander, another to accuse.

c. Alius repeated in another case, or with an adverb from the same stem, expresses shortly a double statement: as,—

alius aliud petit, one man seeks one thing, one another (another seeks another thing).

alius aliā viā cīvitātem auxērunt (Liv. i. 21), they enlarged the State, each in his own way.

IV. VERBS.

z. Verb and Subject.

204. (RULE 4.) A Finite verb agrees with its Subject in Number and Person: as, —

ego statuō, I resolve.

silent lēgēs inter arma, the laws are dumb in time of war.

Note. — In verb-forms containing a participle, the participle agrees with the subject in gender and number (§ 186): as, —

ōrātiō est habita, the plea was delivered.

bellum exortum est, a war arose.

a. A verb having a relative as its subject takes the person of the expressed or implied antecedent: as,—

adsum qui fēci (Æn. ix. 427), here am I who did it.

6. The verb sometimes agrees in number, a participle in the verb-form in number and gender, with an appositive or predicate noun: as. —

non omnis error stultitia est dicenda (Div. ii. 90), not every error should be called folly.

Corinthus lümen Graeciae exstinctum est, Corinth, the light of Greece, is put out.

2. Double Subject.

205. Two or more singular subjects take a verb in the plural: as,—

pater et avus mortui sunt, his father and grandfather are dead.

- a. When subjects are of different persons, the verb is in the first person rather than the second, and in the second rather than the third: as,
 - sī tū et Tullia valētis ego et Cicerō valēmus (Fam. xiv. 5), if you and Tullia are well, Cicero and I are well. [Notice that the first person is also first in order, not last, as by courtesy in English.]

Note. — In case of different genders a participle in a verb-form follows the rule for predicate adjectives; see § 187. b, c.

b. If the subjects are connected by disjunctives, or if they are considered as a single whole, the verb is usually singular: as,—

quem neque fides neque iūsiūrandum neque illum misericordia repressit (Ter. Ad. 306), not faith, nor oath, nay, nor mercy, checked him.

- Senātus populusque Rōmānus intellegit (Fam. v. 8), the Roman Senate and people understand. But, neque Caesar neque ego habiti essēmus (Fam. xi. 20), neither C. nor I should have been considered.
- c. A collective noun commonly takes a verb in the singular: as,—Senātus haec intellegit (Cat. i. 2), the Senate is aware of this.
- ad hiberna exercitus redit (Liv. xxi. 22), the army returns to winter quarters.

1. But the plural is often found with collective nouns when *individuals* are thought of: as, —

pars praedās agēbant (Jug. 32), a part brought in booty.

cum tanta multitūdō lapidēs conicerent (B. G. ii. 6), when such a crowd

was throwing stones.

Note. — The point of view may change in the course of a sentence: as, — equitatum omnem ... quem habebat praemittit, qui videant (B. G. i. 15), he sent ahead all the cavalry he had, to see (who should see).

- 2. Quisque has very often a plural verb, but may be considered as in apposition with a plural subject implied (cf. § 202. d): as, sibi quisque habeant quod suum est (Plaut. Curc.), let every one keep his own (let them keep every man his own).
- d. When a verb belongs to two or more subjects separately, it may agree with one and be understood with the others: as, —

intercēdit M. Antônius et Cassius tribūnī plēbis (B. C. i. 2), Antony and Cassius, tribunes of the people, interpose.

3. Incomplete Sentences.

- 206. The subject of the verb is sometimes omitted. Thus,—
- a. A personal pronoun, as subject, is usually omitted unless emphatic. Thus, —

loquor, I speak. But, ego loquor, it is I that speak.

b. An indefinite subject is often omitted.

This is usually a plural, as in dicunt, ferunt, perhibent (they say); but sometimes singular, as in inquit (Tusc. i. 93), one says (referring to a class of reasoners just spoken of).

- c. The verb is often omitted. Thus, -
- I. Dīcō, faciō, agō, and other verbs in familiar phrases: as,—
 quōrsum haec [spectant], what does this aim at?
 ex ungue leōnem [cōgnōscēs], you will know a lion by his claw.
 quid multa, what need of many words (why should I say much)?
 quid? quod, what of this, that, etc. (what shall I say of this, that, etc.)?
 [A form of transition.]
- 2. The copula sum, very commonly in the indicative and infinitive, rarely (except by late authors) in the subjunctive: as,—

tū coniūnx (Æn. iv. 113), you [are] his wife.
omnia praeclāra rāra (Læl. 79), all the best things are rare.
accipe quae peragenda prius (Æn. vi. 136), hear what is first to be accomplished. [Direct: quae peragenda prius?]

V. PARTICLES.

z. Adverbs.

- 207. (Rule 10.) Adverbs are used to modify Verbs, Adjectives, and other Adverbs.
- a. A Demonstrative or Relative adverb is often equivalent to the corresponding Pronoun with a preposition (see $\S 201.f$): as,
 - eō mīlitēs imponere (B. G. i. 42), on them (thereon, on the horses) he puts the soldiers.
 - quī eum necāsset unde ipse nātus esset (Rosc. Am. 71), one who should have killed his own father (him whence he had his birth).
- b. The adverbs propius, near; proximē, next (like the adjectives propior, proximus); prīdiē, the day before; postrīdiē, the day after, are sometimes followed by the accusative (see § 261. a).

The adverbs palam, openly; procul, afar; simul, at the same time, are sometimes followed by the ablative (see § 261. b).

- Note. Pridië and postridië are often used with the genitive. Clam, without the knowledge of, may take the accusative, the ablative, or the genitive (§ 261. c).
- c. Many perfect participles used as nouns regularly retain the adverb which modified them as participles: as, —

praeclārē factum, a glorious deed (a thing gloriously done).

d. Very rarely adverbs are used with nouns which contain a verbal idea (cf. § 188. d): as,—

populus lātē rēx (Æn. i. 21), a people ruling far and wide. hinc abitiō (Plaut.), a going away from here.

2. Conjunctions.

Note. — For the classification of conjunctions, see §§ 154, 155.

208. Copulative and Disjunctive Conjunctions connect similar constructions, and are regularly followed by the same case or mood that precedes them: as,—

scriptum senātuī et populō (Cat. iii. 10), written to the senate and people. ut eās [partīs] sānārēs et cōnfīrmārēs (Mil. 68), that you might cure and strengthen those parts.

neque meā prūdentiā neque hūmānīs consiliis fretus (Cat. ii. 29), relying neither on my own foresight nor on human wisdom.

a. Conjunctions of Comparison (as ut, quam, tanquam, quasi) also commonly connect similar constructions: as,—

hīs igitur quam physicīs potius crēdendum exīstimās (Div. ii. 37), do you think these are more to be trusted than the natural philosophers? ut non omne vīnum sīc non omnis nātūra vetustāte coacēscit (Cat. Maj. 65), as every wine does not sour with age, so [does] not every nature. Cf. pērge ut īnstituistī (Rep. ii. 22), go on as you have begun.

b. Two or more co-ordinate words, phrases, or sentences are often put together without the use of conjunctions (Asyndeton): as, —

omnēs dī, hominēs, all gods and men.

līberī, servī, freemen and slaves.

- 1. With more than two co-ordinate words, etc., a conjunction, if used at all, must be used with all (or all except the first): as,
 - aut aere alieno aut magnitudine tributorum aut iniuria potentiorum (B. G. vi. 13), by debt, excessive taxation, or oppression on the part of the powerful.
 - summā fidē et constantiā et iūstitiā, with perfect good faith, [and] consistency, and justice. [Not fidē constantiā et iūstitiā, as in English.]
- 2. But words are often so divided into groups that the members of the groups omit the conjunction (or express it), while the groups themselves express the conjunction (or omit it): as,
 - propudium illud et portentum, L. Antōnius însīgne odium omnium hominum (Phil. xiv. 8), that wretch and monster, Lucius Antonius, the abomination of all men.
- 3. The enclitic -que is sometimes used with the last member of a series, even when there is no grouping apparent: as, —

võce vultū mõtūque (Brut. 110), by voice, expression, and gesture. multõ südõre labõre vigiliisque (Caecil. 72), with much fatigue, toil, and waking.

c. Two adjectives belonging to the same noun are regularly connected by a conjunction: as, —

multae et graves causae, many weighty reasons.

d. Many words properly adverbs may be used correlatively, and so become conjunctions, partly or wholly losing their adverbial force (see § 107). Such are —

cum ... tum, while ... so also (both ... and).

tum ... tum, now ... now.

modo . . . modo, now . . . now.

simul ... simul, at the same time ... at the same time (at once ... as well as).

quā . . . quā, now . . . now.

nunc ... nunc, now ... now.

Thus, —

cum difficile est, tum ne aecum quidem (Læl. 26), not only is it difficult, but even unjust.

modo ait modo negat (Ter. Eun. 712), now he says yes, now no.

simul grātiās agit, simul grātulātur (Q. C. vi. 7, 15), he thanks him and at the same time congratulates him.

- e. Two conjunctions of similar meaning are often used together, for the sake of emphasis or to bind a sentence more closely to what precedes: as, at vērō, but in truth, still, however; itaque ergō, accordingly then; namque, for; et-enim, for, you see (§ 156. d).
 - f. For conjunctions introducing subjunctive clauses, see §§ 316 ff.

3. Negative Particles.

Note. — For the list of negative particles, see § 149. c.

- 209. In the use of the Negative Particles, the following points are to be observed:—
- a. Two negatives are equivalent to an affirmative, as in English (§ 150): as, nēmō nōn videt, everybody sees.

But a general negation is not destroyed —

1. By a following ne ... quidem, not even, or non modo, not only: as, —

numquam tū non modo otium, sed no bellum quidem nisi nefarium concupīstī (Cat. i. 25), not only have you never desired repose, but you have never desired any war except one which was infamous.

2. By succeeding negatives, each introducing a separate sub-ordinate member: as, —

eaque nesciébant nec ubi nec qualia essent (Tusc. iii. 4), they knew not where or of what kind these things were.

- 3. By neque introducing a co-ordinate member: as, -
- nequeo satis mirārī neque conicere (Ter. Eun. 547), I cannot wonder enough nor conjecture.
- b. The negative is frequently joined to some other word. Hence the forms of negation in Latin differ from those in English in many expressions. Thus, —

neque (nec), and not, but not (neither . . . nor) (not et non).

nec quisquam, and no one (nor any one) (not et nēmō).

nülli or neutri crēdō, I do not believe either (I believe neither) (not non crēdō ülli).

nego haec esse vēra, *I say this is not true* (I deny that these things are true) (not dīcō nōn esse).

sine üllö periculö (less commonly cum nüllö), with no danger (without any danger).

nihil unquam audīvī iūcundius, I never heard anything more amusing (nothing more amusing have I ever heard).

c. A statement is often made emphatic by denying its contrary (Litotes): as, —

non haec sine numine divom eveniunt (Æn. ii. 777), these things do not occur without the will of the gods.

haec non nimis exquiro (Att. vii. 18, 3), not very much, i.e. very little.

Note. — Compare nonnüllus, nonnemo, etc. (§ 150. a).

d. The particle **immo**, nay, is used to contradict some part of a preceding statement or question, or its form; in the latter case, the same statement is often repeated in a stronger form, so that **immo** becomes nearly equivalent to yes (nay but, nay rather): as,—

causa igitur non bona est? immo optima (Att. ix. 7), is the cause then not a good one? on the contrary, the best.

e. Minus, less (especially with si, if, quō, in order that), and minimē, least, often have a negative force. Thus,—

sī minus possunt, if they cannot. [For quō minus, see §§ 319. c, 331. c.] audācissimus ego ex omnibus? minimē (Rosc. Am. 2), am I the boldest of them all? by no means (not at all).

[For do not in Prohibitions, see § 269. a.]

When

Ounou SENTENCE.

On (aunu)
VI. QUESTIONS.

210.) Ouestions are either Direct or Indirect.

- 1. A Direct Question gives the exact words of the speaker: as, quid est? whatis it?
- 2. An Indirect Question gives the substance of the question, adapted to the form of the sentence in which it is quoted. It depends on a verb or other expression of asking, doubting, knowing, or the like: as, -

rogavit quid esset, he asked what it was. [Direct: quid est, what is it?] nescio ubi sim, I know not where I am. [Direct: ubi sum, where am I?]

Ouestions in Latin are introduced by special interrogative words, and are not distinguished by the order of words, as in English.

NOTE. — For the list of Interrogative Particles, see § 149. d.

a. (RULE 11.) A question of simple fact, requiring the answer YES or NO, is formed by adding the enclitic -ne to the emphatic word: as, -

tune id veritus es (Cic.), did YOU fear that?

hīcine vir usquam nisi in patriā moriētur (Mil. 104), shall. THIS man die anywhere but in his native land?

b. The interrogative particle -ne is sometimes omitted: as, —

patere tua consilia non sentis (Cat. i. 1), do you not see that your schemes are manifest (you do not see, eh)?

NOTE - In such cases no sign of interrogation appears except in the punctuation, and it is often doubtful whether the sentence is a question or an ironical statement.

c. (RULE 12.) When the enclitic -ne is added to a negative word, as in nonne, - an affirmative answer is expected. The particle num suggests a negative answer. Thus, --

nonne animadvertis (N. D. iii. 89), do you not observe? num dubium est (Rosc. Am. 107), there is no doubt, is there?

d. The particle -ne often when added to the verb, less commonly when added to some other word, has the force of nonne: as, -

meministīne mē in senātū dīcere (Cat. i. 7), don't you remember my saving in the Senate?

rēctēne interpretor sententiam tuam (Tusc. iii. 37), do I not rightly interpret your meaning?

[\$ 210.

ORC DECIRC

§ 211.]

DOUBLE OUESTIONS.

NOTE. - This was evidently the original meaning of -ne; but in most cases the negative force was lost, and -ne was used merely to express a ques-So the English interrogative no? shades off into ch?

e. A question concerning some special circumstance is formed by prefixing to the sentence an interrogative pronoun or adverb (§ 106), as in English: as, —

quid est quod iam amplius exspectes (Cat. i. 6), what is there for you to look for any more?

quo igitur haec spectant (Fam. vi. 6), whither, then, is all this tending? Icare, ubi es (Ov. M. viii. 232), Icarus, where are you?

REMARK. — A question of this form becomes an exclamation by changing the inflection of the voice: as, qualis vir erat! what a man he was! quot calamitates passi sumus! how many misfortunes have we suffered!

f. The particles nam (enclitic) and tandem may be added to interrogative pronouns and adverbs for the sake of emphasis: as, —

quisnam est, pray who is it? [quis tandem est? would be stronger.] ubinam gentium sumus (Cat. i. 9), where in the world are we? in qua tandem urbe hoc disputant (Mil. 7), in what city, pray, do they maintain this?

In indirect questions num loses its peculiar force (\S 210. c).

Double Questions.

211) A Double or Alternative Question is an inquiry as to which of two or more supposed cases is true.

In Double or Alternative Questions, utrum or -ne, whether, stands in the first member; an, anne, or, annon, necne, or not, in the second; and usually an in the third, if there be one: as. —

utrum nescīs, an pro nihilo id putās (Fam. x. 26), is it that you don't know, or do you think nothing of it?

quaero servosne an liberos (Rosc. Am. 74), I ask whether slaves or free.

REMARK. — Annon is more common in direct questions, necne in indirect.

a. The interrogative particle is often omitted in the first member; in which case an or -ne (anne, necne) may stand in the second: as, --Gabīniō dīcam anne Pompēiō an utrīque (Man. 57), shall I say to Gabi-

nius, or to Pompey, or to both? sunt haec tua verba necne (Tusc. iii. 41), are these your words or not?

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1): (

utum an a.

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THE SENTENCE.

b. Sometimes the first member is omitted or implied, and an (anne) alone asks the question, — usually with indignation or surprise: as, —

an til miseros putas illos (Tusc. i. 13), what! do you think those men wretched?

c. Sometimes the second member is omitted or implied, and utrum may ask a question to which there is no alternative: as,—

utrum in clārissimīs est cīvibus is, quem . . . (Flacc. 45), is he among the noblest citizens, whom, etc.?

d. The following table exhibits the various forms of alternative questions:—

utrum an an	_nean
utrum annon	ne, necne
an (anne)	-ne necne

Ouestion and Answer.

212. There is no one Latin word in common use meaning simply yes or no. In answering a question affirmatively, the verb or some other emphatic word is generally repeated; in answering negatively, the verb, etc., with non or a similar negative: as,—

valetne, is he well? valet, yes (he is well).
eratne tēcum, was he with you? non erat, no (he was not).
numquidnam novī, there is nothing new, is there? nihil sānē, oh! nothing.

/ a. An intensive or negative particle, a phrase, or a clause is sometimes used to answer a direct question: thus,—

. For yes:—

etiam, even so, yes, etc. ita vērō, certainly (so in truth), etc. vērō, in truth, true, no doubt, yes. sānē quidem, yes, no doubt, etc. ita, so, true, etc. ita est, it is so, true, etc. sānē, surely (soundly), no doubt, doubtless, etc. certē, certainly, most assuredly, unquestionably, etc.

2. For NO:—

1

non, not [so].

non, not at all (in the smallest degree, cf. § 209. e).

minime vēro, no, not by any means; oh! no, etc.

non quidem, why, no; certainly not, etc.

non hercle vēro, why, gracious, no (certainly not, by Hercules)!

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§ 212.]

QUESTIONS AND ANSWERS.

Examples are: -

an Com.

quidnam? an laudātiones? ita, why, what? is it eulogies? just so.

aut etiam aut non respondere (Acad. ii. 104), to answer (categorically) yes or no.

estne ut fertur forma? sane (Ter. Eun. 360), is [she] as handsome as they say she is (is her beauty as it is said)? oh! yes.

fugisne hinc? ego vērō ac lubēns (Ter. And. 337), will you clear out from here? indeed I will, and be glad to.

miser ergō Archelāus? certē sī iniūstus (Tusc. v. 35), was Archelaus wretched then? certainly, if he was unjust.

haec contemnitis? minime (De Or. ii. 295), do you despise these things? not at all.

volucribusne et feris? minime vero (Tusc. i. 104), to the birds and beasts? why, of course not.

ex tuī animī sententiā tu uxōrem habēs? non hercle, ex meī animī sententiā (De Or. ii. 260), Lord! no, etc.

b. In answering a double question, one member of the alternative, or some part of it, must be repeated: as, -

tune an frater erat, was it you or your brother? ego [eram], it was I.

REMARK. - From double questions must be distinguished those which are in themselves single, but of which some detail only is alternative. These have the common disjunctive particles aut or vel (-ve): as, -

quaero num iniūstē aut improbē fēcerit (Off. iii. 54), I ask whether he acted unjustly or even dishonestly.

Here there is no double question. The only inquiry is whether the man did either of the two things supposed, not which of the two he did.

CONSTRUCTION OF CASES.

1. GENITIVE.

NOTE. — The Genitive is regularly used to express the relation of one noun to another. Hence it is sometimes called the adjective case, to distinguish it from the Dative and the Ablative, which may be called adverbial cases. Its uses may be classified as follows: -

1. Of Possession (§ 214). 2. Of Source developed into Material (§ 214. e). I. GENITIVE WITH 3. Of Quality (§ 215).

4. Of the Whole, after words designating a Part (Partitive, § 216).

5. With Nouns of Action and Feeling (§ 217).

Nouns:

me necke

II. GENITIVE WITH (1. Relative adjective (or Verbal) (§ 218. a, b).

ADJECTIVES: (2. Of Specification (later use) (§ 218. c).

III. GENITIVE WITH (1. Of Memory, Feeling, etc. (§§ 219, 221-23).

VERBS: 2. Of Accusing, etc. (Charge or Penalty) (§ 220).

- I. GENITIVE WITH NOUNS.
- 213. (RULE 14.) A noun used to limit or define another, and *not* meaning the same person or thing, is put in the Genitive.

This relation is most frequently expressed in English by the preposition of: as,—

librī Ciceronis, the books of Cicero, Cicero's books.

talentum auri, a talent of gold.

vir summae virtūtis, a man of the greatest courage.

pars militum, a part of the soldiers.

cultus deorum, worship of the gods.

vacātiō labōris, a respite from toil.

victor omnium gentium, conqueror of all nations.

In most constructions the genitive is either Subjective or Objective.

- 1. The Subjective genitive denotes that to which the noun limited belongs, or from which it is derived (§ 214).
- (2. The Objective genitive denotes that towards which an action or feeling is directed (§ 217 ff.).

This distinction is illustrated by the following example. The phrase amor patris, love of a father, may mean love felt by a father, a father's love (subjective genitive), or love towards a father (objective genitive).

214. (RULE 15.) The Subjective Genitive is used with a noun to denote (1) the Author or Owner, (2) the Source or the Material, (3) the Quality.

I. Possessive Genitive.

a. 1. The Possessive Genitive denotes the author or owner: as,—

librī Ciceronis, the books of (written by) Cicero.

Alexandri ecus, Alexander's horse.

2. For the genitive of possession a possessive or derivative adjective is often used,—regularly for the possessive genitive of the personal pronouns (§§ 190, 197. a): as,—

liber meus, my book. [Not liber meī.] aliēna perīcula, other men's dangers. [But also aliōrum.] Sullāna tempora, the times of Sulla. [Oftener Sullae.]

b. The noun limited is understood in a few expressions: as,—ad Castoris [aedēs], to the [temple] of Castor (cf. English, St. Peter's). Hectoris Andromachē (Æn. iii. 319), Hector's [wife] Andromache. Flaccus Claudī, Flaccus [slave] of Claudius.

c. The possessive genitive is often in the predicate, connected with its noun by a verb: as.—

haec domus est patris mei, this house is my father's.

tütelae nostrae [eos] duximus (Liv.), we held them [to be] in our protec-

compendi facere, to save (make of saving).

lucri facere, to get the benefit of (make of profit).

iam mē Pompēi tōtum esse scīs (Fam. ii. 13), you know I am now all for Pompey (all Pompey's).

REMARK. — These genitives bear the same relation to the examples in § 213 that a predicate noun bears to an appositive (§§ 184, 185).

d. An infinitive or a clause, when used as a noun, is often limited by a genitive in the predicate: as,—

neque sui iüdici [erat] decernere (B. C. i. 35), nor was it for his judgment to decide (nor did it belong to his judgment).

cūiusvīs hominis est errāre (Cic.), it is any man's [liability] to err.

timidi est optare necem (Ov. M. iv. 115), it is for the coward to wish for death.

sapientis (not sapiëns) est pauca loqui, it is wise (the part of a wise man) to say little.

REMARK. — This construction is regular with adjectives of the third declension instead of the neuter nominative (see the last example).

NOTE. — A derivative or possessive adjective may be used for the genitive in this construction, and *must* be used for the genitive of a personal pronoun: as, —

mentīrī non est meum (not mei), it is not for me to lie.

hūmānum (for hominis) est errāre, it is man's nature to err (to err is human).

2. Genitive of Material.

e. The genitive may denote the Substance or Material of which a thing consists (compare §§ 216, 244): as,—

talentum aurī, a talent of gold. flūmina lactis, rivers of milk.

f. A limiting genitive is sometimes used instead of a noun in apposition (§ 183): as,—

nomen însâniae (for nomen însânia), the word madness.

oppidum Antiochiae (for oppidum Antiochia, the regular form), the city
of Antioch. [A very loose use of this genitive, cf. e.]

3. Genitive of Quality.

215. The genitive is used to denote Quality, but only when the quality is modified by an adjective: as,—

vir summae virtūtis, a man of the highest courage. [But not vir virtūtis.] māgnae est dēlīberātionis, it is an affair of great deliberation. ille autem suī iūdicī (Nep. Att. 9), but he [a man] of independent (his own) judgment.

- a. The genitive of quality is found in the adjective phrases **ēius** modī, cūius modī (equivalent to tālis, such; quālis, of what sort).
- b. The genitive of quality, with numerals, is used to define measures of length, depth, etc. (Genitive of measure): as,—

fössa trium pedum, a trench of three feet [in depth]. mürus sēdecim pedum, a wall of sixteen feet [high].

c. For Genitives of Quality used to express indefinite value, see § 252. a.

4. Partitive Genitive.

- 216. (RULE 16.) Words denoting a Part are followed by the genitive of the Whole to which the part belongs.
 - a. Partitive words, followed by the genitive, are—
 - 1. Nouns or pronouns: as, -

pars mīlitum, part of the soldiers. quis nostrūm, which of us (cf. e, below)? nihil erat reliquī, there was nothing left.

2. Numerals, Comparatives, Superlatives, and Pronominal words like allus, etc.: as, —

alter consulum, one of the [two] consuls.

unus tribunorum, one of the tribunes (cf. c, below).

plūrimum tõtīus Galliae equitātū valet (B. G. v, 3), is strongest in cavalry of all Gaul.

maior fratrum, the elder of the brothers.

3. Neuter adjectives and pronouns, used as nouns: as, -

tantum spatī, so much [of] space.

aliquid nummorum, a few pence (something of coins).

id loci (or locorum), that spot of ground. Also at that time.

id temporis, at that time (§ 240. b).

plana urbis, the level parts of the town.

quid novī, what news (what of new)?

REMARK. — The genitive of adjectives of the third declension is rarely used partitively. Thus, —

nihil novī (gen.), nothing new; but

nihil memorabile (nom.), nothing worth mention. [Not nihil memorabilis.]

4. Adverbs, especially of Quantity and Place: as, -

satis pecuniae, money enough (enough of money).

parum ōtī, not much ease (too little of ease).

tum temporis, at that point of time (then of time).

ubinam gentium sumus, where in the world are we (where of nations)?

b. The poets and later writers often use the partitive genitive after adjectives, instead of a noun in its proper case: as,—

sequimur tē sancte deōrum (Æn. iv. 576), we follow thee, O holy deity. [For sancte deus.]

c. Cardinal numerals regularly take the Ablative with **ē** (ex) or d**ē** instead of the Partitive Genitive. So also quidam commonly, and other words occasionally: as,—

unus ex tribunīs, one of the tribunes. [But also, unus tribunorum.] minumus ex illīs (Jug. 11), the youngest of them. quidam ex mīlitibus, certain of the soldiers.

d. Uterque, both (properly each), and quisque, each, with Nouns are used as adjectives in agreement, but with Pronouns always take a partitive genitive: as,—

uterque consul, both the consuls; but, uterque nostrüm, both of us. unus quisque vostrüm, each one of you.

e. Numbers and words of quantity including the whole of any thing, take a case in agreement, and not the partitive genitive. So also words denoting a part if only that part is thought of: as,—

nos omnes, all of us (we all). [Not omnes nostrum] but nostrum omnium. quot sunt hostes, how many of the enemy are there? multi milites, many of the soldiers.

5. Objective Genitive.

The Objective Genitive is used with Nouns, Adjectives, and Verbs.

217. (RULE 17.) Nouns of action, agency, and feeling govern the genitive of the object: as,—

dēsīderium ōtī, longing for rest. grātia beneficī, gratitude for kindness. fuga malōrum, refuge from disaster.

precātiō deōrum, prayer to the gods.

NOTE. — This usage is an extension of the idea of belonging to (Possessive Genitive).

a. The objective genitive is sometimes replaced by a possessive or other derivative adjective (see § 197. a. 2): as,—

mea invidia, my unpopularity (the dislike of which I am the object). metus hostīlis (Jug. 41), fear of the enemy (hostile fear).

b. Rarely the objective genitive is used with a noun already limited by another genitive: as,—

animī multārum rērum percursiō (Tusc. iv. 31), the mind's traversing of many things.

c. A noun with a preposition is often used instead of the objective genitive: as, —

odium in Caesarem, hate of Cæsar. [Cf. odium Caesaris, note above.] merita ergā mē (Cic.), services to me.

excēssus ē vītā (id.), departure from life. [Also, excēssus vītae, Cic.]

II. GENITIVE WITH ADJECTIVES.

218. Adjectives requiring an object of reference govern the objective genitive.

These are called Relative Adjectives (adiectiva relātīva) or Transitive Adjectives, and include the following:—

(RULE 18.) Adjectives denoting desire, knowledge, memory, filness, powers, hearing, guilt, and their opposites: as,—

avidus laudis, greedy of praise.

fastīdiōsus litterārum, disdaining letters.

iūris perītus, skilled in law. [So, also, the ablative, iūre, cf. § 253.]

reī mīlitāris imperītus, unskilled in military science.

rationis et orationis expertes, devoid of sense and speech.

vostrī memor, mindful of you.

plēnus fideī, full of good faith.

impotens îrae, ungovernable in anger.

particeps coniūrātionis, sharing in the conspiracy.

īnsons culpae, innocent of guilt.

b. (RULE 18.) Verbals in -ax (§ 164. 1); also participles in -nx when used as adjectives, (i.e. to denote a disposition and not a particular act): as,—

tenacem propositi virum (Hor. Od. iii, 3), a man steadfast to his purpose. circus capax populi (Ov.), a circus big enough to hold the people.

sī quem tuī amantiōrem cōgnōvistī (Q. Fr. i. 1. 15), if you have become acquainted with any one more fond of you.

multitudo însolens belli (B. C. ii. 36), a crowd unused to war.

NOTE. 1. — Participles in -ns, when used as participles, take the case regularly governed by the verb to which they belong: as,—

Tiberius sitiens sanguinem (Tac.), Tiberius [then] thirsting for blood.

NOTE 2. — Occasionally participial forms in -ns are treated as participles (see note 1), even when they express a disposition or character: as, —

virtus quam aliī ipsam temperantiam dīcunt esse, aliī obtemperantem temperantiae praeceptīs et eam subsequentem (Tusc. iv. 30), observant of the teachings of temperance and obedient to her.

c. The poets and later writers use the genitive with almost any adjective, to denote that with reference to which the quality exists (Genitive of Specification): as,—

callidus reī mīlitāris (Tac. H. ii. 31), skilled in soldiership. pauper aquae (Hor. Od. iii. 30. 11), scant of water. fessī rērum (Æn. i. 178), weary of toil.

REMARK. — Adjectives of *feeling* are followed by the apparent genitive animi (really locative, cf. § 223. c): as, —

aeger animī, sick at heart. confūsus animī, disturbed in spirit.



III. GENITIVE WITH VERBS.

The Objective Genitive is used with some verbs.

1. Remembering and Forgetting.

- 219. (RULE 19.) Verbs of Remembering and Forgetting take the Genitive of the object when they are used of a continued state of mind, but the Accusative when used of a single act: as,—
 - 1. Genitive: --

recordāns superioris trānsmīssionis (Att. iv. 19), remembering your former crossing.

animus meminit praeteritorum (Div. i. 63), the soul remembers the past. venit mihi in mentem illīus dieī, I bethink me of that day (it comes into my mind of that day).

obliviscere caedis atque incendiorum (Cat. i. 6), turn your mind from slaughter and conflagrations.

2. Accusative : -

totam causam oblitus est (Brut, 217), he forgot the whole case. pueritiae memoriam recordari (Arch. 1), to recall the memory of childhood.

a. The Accusative is almost always used of a person or thing remembered by an eye-witness: as, —

memineram Paullum (Læl. 9), I remembered Paulus.

b. Recordor, recollect, recall, denotes a single act and is therefore almost always followed by the Accusative: as,—

recordāminī omnīs cīvīlīs dissēnsionēs (Cat. iii. 24), recall all the civil wars.

c. Verbs of reminding take with the accusative of the person a genitive of the thing; except in the case of a neuter pronoun, which is put in the accusative (cf. § 238. b).

Catilina admonēbat alium egestātis, alium cupiditātis suae (Sall. Cat. 21),

Catiline reminded one of his poverty, another of his cupidity.

ünum illud monēre tē possum, I can remind you of this one thing.

So admoneo, commoneo, commonefacio, commonefio. But moneo with the genitive is found only in late writers (cf. § 238. b. note).

NOTE. — All these verbs often take $d\bar{e}$ with the ablative, and the accusative of nouns as well as of pronouns is sometimes used with them: as, —

saepius tē admoneō dē syngraphā Sittiānā (Fam. viii. 4, 5), I remind you again and again of the bond of Sittius.

officium vestrum ut vos malo cogatis commonerier (Plaut. Ps. 150), to be reminded of your duty.

2. Charge and Penalty.

220. (RULE 20.) Verbs of Accusing, Condemning, and acquitting take the genitive of the *charge* or *penalty*: as,—

arguit me furti, he accuses me of theft.

videō nōn tē absolūtum esse improbitātis, sed illōs damnātōs esse caedis (Verr. II. i, 72), I see, not that you were acquitted of outrage, but that they were condemned for homicide.

a. Peculiar genitives, under this construction, are -

capitis, as in damnare capitis, to sentence to death.

māiestātis [laesae], treason (crime against the dignity of the State).

repetundārum [rērum], extortion (lit. of an action for claiming back money wrongfully taken).

võti, in damnātus or reus võti, bound [to the payment] of one's vow; i.e. successful in one's effort.

pecuniae (damnare, iudicare, see note under 3, below).

dūplī, etc., as in dūplī condemnāre, condemn to pay twofold.

- b. Other constructions for the charge or penalty are —
- 1. The ablative of price: regularly of a definite amount of fine, and often of indefinite penalties (cf. § 252. note): as, —

Frusinātēs tertiā parte agrī damnātī (Liv. x. 1), the people of Frusino condemned [to forfeit] a third part of their land.

vitia autem hominum atque fraudes damnīs īgnominis vinculis verberibus exsiliis morte damnantur (De Or. i. 194), but the vices and crimes of men are punished with fines, dishonor, chains, scourging, exile, death.

2. The ablative with de, or the accusative with inter, in idiomatic expressions: as, —

dē aleā, for gambling.

dē ambitū, for bribery.

inter sīcāriōs, as an assassin (among the assassins).

dē vī et māiestātis damnātī (Phil. I, 21), convicted of assault and treason.

3. Verbs of Feeling.

- 221. Many verbs of Feeling take the genitive of the object which excites the feeling. Thus,—
- a. Verbs of pity, as misereor and miseresco, are followed by the genitive: as,—

miserēscite rēgis (Æn. viii. 573), pity the king.

miserēre animī non digna ferentis (id. ii. 144), pity a soul, etc.

But miseror, commiseror, bewail, take the accusative: as, — communem condicionem miserari (Mur. 55), bewail the common lot.

b. The impersonals miseret, paenitet, piget, pudet, taedet (or pertaesum est) take the Genitive of the cause of the feeling and the Accusative of the person affected: as,—

hos homines infamiae suae neque pudet neque taedet (Verr. i. 35), these men are neither ashamed nor weary of their dishonor. [Cf. it repenteth him of the evil.]

mē quidem miseret parietum ipsorum (Phil. ii. 69), for my part I pity the very walls.

c. An infinitive, a clause, or the accusative (possibly nominative) of a neuter pronoun may be used with these impersonal verbs (except **miseret**) instead of the genitive of a noun: as,—

mē paenitet haec fēcisse, I repent of having done this. nihil quod paenitēre possit (Cic.), nothing that may cause repentance.

4. Interest and Refert.

222. The impersonals interest and refert take the genitive of the person (rarely of the thing) affected: as,—

Clodi intererat Milonem perire (Mil. 56), it was the interest of Clodius that Milo should die.

video enim quid mea intersit, quid utriusque nostrum (Fam. vii. 23), for I see what is for my good and for the good of us both.

The subject of the verb is a neuter pronoun or a substantive clause.

a. Instead of the Genitive of a Personal Pronoun the corresponding Possessive is used in the ablative singular feminine with interest or refert: as,—

quid tuă id refert? magnī (Ter. Ph. 723), how does that concern you? much. [See also the last example above.]

b. The accusative with ad is used with interest and refert to express the thing with reference to which one is interested: as,—

magni ad honorem nostrum interest (Fam. xvi. 1), it is of great consequence to our honor.

refert ad fructus (Varr. R. R. i. 16), it makes a difference as to the crop.

5. Verbs of Plenty and Want.

223. Some verbs of Plenty and Want govern the genitive: as,—

quid est quod defensionis indigeat? (Rosc. Am. 34), what is there that needs defence?

satagit rērum suārum, he has his hands full with his own affairs.

Note. — But verbs of plenty and want more commonly take the ablative (see §§ 243. a, 248. c), except egeō, indigeō, satagō.

6. Other Verbs.

a. The genitive sometimes follows potion, get possession of; as always in the phrase potiri rērum, to be master of affairs. Thus, —

illius regni potiri (Fam. i. 7, 5), to become master of that kingdom.

Cleanthes solem dominari et rerum potiri putat (Ac. ii. 126), Cleanthes thinks the sun holds sway and is lord of the universe.

But potior usually takes the ablative (see § 249).

- b. Some other verbs rarely take the Genitive —
- 1. By analogy with those mentioned in § 221: as, •

neque hūius sīs veritus fēminae prīmāriae (Ter. Ph. 971), and you had no respect for this high-born lady.

2. As akin to adjectives which take the genitive: as, —

fastīdit meī (Plaut. Aul. 243), he disdains me. [Cf. fastīdiõsus.] studet tuī (quoted N. D. iii. 72), he is zealous for you. [Cf. studiõsus.]

c. The apparent genitive animi (really Locative) is used with a few verbs of feeling and the like (cf. § 218. c. Rem.): as, —

Antiphō mē excruciat animī (Ter. Ph. 187), Antipho tortures my mind (me in my mind).

IV. PECULIAR GENITIVES.

d. A genitive occurs rarely in Exclamations, in imitation of the Greek (Genitive of Exclamation): as,—

dī immortālēs, mercimōnī lepidī (Plaut. Most. 912), good heavens! what a charming bargain!

e. The genitive is often used with the ablatives causa, gratia, for the sake of; ergo, because of; and the indeclinable instar, like; also with pridie, the day before; postridie, the day after; tenus, as far as: as. -

honoris causa, with due respect (for the sake of honor). verbī grātiā, for example.

ēius lēgis ergō, on account of this law.

ecus înstar montis (Æn. ii. 15), a horse like (the image of) a mountain. laterum tenus (Æn. x. 210), as far as the sides.

II. DATIVE.

NOTE. — The Dative seems to be closely akin to the Locative (cf. ofros. at home, with οἴκφ, to a house), and must have had the primary meaning of to or towards. But this local meaning appears in Latin only in the poets (§ 225. b. 3) and in some adverbial forms (as eo, illo, thither).

The uses of the Dative, arranged practically, are the following: -

I. AS INDIRECT OBJECT (I. With Transitives (§ 225).

2. With Intransitives (§§ 226-28, 230). (general use):

2. Special or Idiomatic
Uses:

[I. Of Possession (with esse) (§ 231).
2. Of Agency (with Gerundive) (§ 232).
3. Of Purpose or End (predicate use) (§ 233).
4. Of Fitness, etc. (with Adjectives) (§ 234).

5. Of Reference (datīvus commodī)(§§ 235, 236).

224. (RULE 21.) The Dative is used of the object indirectly affected by an action.

This is called the Indirect Object (§ 177). It is usually denoted in English by the Objective with to or for. Thus, -

dat librum puero, he gives a book to the boy. cēdite temporī, yield to the occasion.

provincia Ciceroni obtigit, the province fell by lot to Cicero.

1. Indirect Object with Transitives.

225. The Dative of the Indirect Object with the Accusative of the Direct may be used with any transitive verb whose meaning allows (see § 177): as, —

do tibi librum, I give you a book.

illud tibi affīrmō (Fam. i. 7, 5), this I assure you.

a. Many verbs have both a transitive and an intransitive use (§ 177. These take either the Accusative with the Dative, or the Dative alone: as,-

hanc pecuniam tibi credo, I trust this money to you. [Transitive.] in hac re tibi credo, I trust you in this. [Intransitive.]

- b. Certain verbs implying motion vary in their construction between the Dative of the Indirect Object and the Accusative of the End of Motion (§ 258. b). Thus, —
- 1. Some verbs take the Accusative (with or without a preposition), instead of the Indirect Object, when the idea of motion prevails (§ 258): as,
 - litterās quās ad Pompēium scrīpsī (Att. iii. 9), the letter which I have written [and sent] to Pompey. [Cf. non quo haberem quod tibi scriberem (Att. iv. 4), not that I had anything to write to you.]

litterae extemplo Romam scriptae (Liv. xli. 16), a letter was immediately written [and sent] to Rome.

hostes in fugam dat (B. G. v. 51), he puts the enemy to flight. [Cf. ut me dem fugae (Att. viii. 23), to take to flight.]

2. On the other hand, many verbs usually followed by the Accusative with ad or in, take the Dative when the idea of motion is merged in some other idea: as, —

nec quicquam quod non mihi Caesar detulerit (Fam. iv. 13), and nothing which Casar did not communicate to me.

eum librum tibi mīsī (id. vii. 19), I sent you that book.

cūrēs ut mihi vehantur (id. viii. 4), take care that they be conveyed to me. cum alius alii subsidium ferrent (B. G. ii. 26), while one lent aid to another.

- 3. In poetry the End of Motion is often expressed by the dative (see § 258. note 1).
- c. For the Dative of the person and the Accusative of the thing after verbs of threatening and the like, see § 227. f.
- d. Certain verbs may take either the Dative of the person and the Accusative of the thing, or (in a different sense) the Accusative of the person and the Ablative of the thing: as, -

donat coronas suis, he presents wreaths to his men; or,

donat suos coronis, he presents his men with wreaths.

aram sanguine adspergere (N. D. iii. 88), to sprinkle the altar with blood. ārae sanguinem adspergere, to sprinkle blood upon the altar.

Such are dōnō, impertiō, induō, exuō, adspergō, inspergō, circumdō, circumfundō, prohibeō, interclūdō, and in poetry accingō, implicō, and similar verbs.

NOTE 1. — Interdico, forbid, takes either (1) the dative of the person and the accusative of the thing, or (2) the dative of the person and the ablative of the thing: as,—

interdīxit histrionibus scaenam (Suet. Dom. 7), he forbade the actors [to appear on] the stage (he prohibited the stage to the actors). [Cf. interdictum est mare Antiātī populo (Liv. viii. 14), the sea was forbidden to the people of Antium.]

aqua et igni alicui interdicere, to forbid the use of fire and water.

Note 2.— The Dative with the Accusative is used in poetry with many verbs of preventing, protecting, and the like, which usually take the Accusative and Ablative. Interclūdō and arceō sometimes take the Dative and Accusative, even in prose: as,—

hisce omnis aditüs ad Sullam interclüdere (Rosc. Am. 110), to shut these men off from all access to Sulla (close to them every approach). [Cf. uti frümentö commeätüque Caesarem interclüderet (B. G. i. 48), to shut Caesar off from grain and supplies.]

hunc (oestrum) arcēbis pecorī (Georg. iii. 154), you shall keep this away from the flock. [Cf. illum arcuit Galliā (Phil. v. 37), he excluded him from Gaul.]

solstitium pecori defendite (Ecl. vii. 47), keep the summer heat from the flock.

e. Verbs which in the active voice take the accusative and dative retain the dative when used in the passive: as,—

haec nobis nuntiantur, these things are told us. [Active: haec [quidam] nobis nuntiat.]

Crassō dīvitiae nōn invidentur, Crassus is not envied for his wealth.

[Active: Crassō dīvitiās nōn invident.]

decem talenta oppidānīs imperantur, ten talents are exacted of the townspeople. [Active: imperat oppidānīs decem talenta.]

2. Indirect Object with Intransitives.

226. The Dative of the Indirect Object may be used with any Intransitive verb whose meaning allows: as,—

cēdant arma togae (Phil. ii. 20), let arms give place to the gown.

Caesarī respondet, he replies to Cæsar.

Caesarī respondētur, Cæsar is replied to (see § 230).



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crēdimus nūntio, we believe the messenger.

nuntio creditur, the messenger is believed.

respondī māximīs crīminibus (Phil. ii. 36), I have answered the heaviest charges.

Note 1.—Intransitive verbs have no Direct Object. The Indirect Object, therefore, in these cases stands alone (but cf. § 225. a).

Note 2. — Cēdō, yield, sometimes takes the Ablative of the thing along with the Dative of the person: as, —

cēdere alicui possēssione hortorum (Mil. 75), to give up to one the possession of a garden.

a. Many phrases consisting of a noun with the copula sum or a copulative verb are equivalent to an intransitive verb and take a kind of indirect object (cf. § 235): as,—

auctor esse alicui, to advise or instigate one (cf. persuadeo).
quis huic rei testis est (Quinc. 37), who testifies (is witness) to this fact?
is finis populationibus fuit (Liv. ii. 30), this put an end to the raids.

b. The dative is sometimes used without a copulative verb in a sense approaching that of the genitive (cf. §§ 227. d, 235. a): as,—

lēgātus Caesarī, a lieutenant to Cæsar (i.e. a man assigned to Cæsar). hērēs frātrī suō, his brother's heir (heir to his brother). ministrī sceleribus, agents of crime.

Note. — The cases in a and b differ from the constructions of § 227, note 2, and § 235 in that the dative is more closely connected in idea with some single word to which it serves as an indirect object.

3. Dative with Special Verbs.

Many verbs of apparently transitive meaning in English correspond to verbs intransitive in Latin. Thus, —

227. (RULE 22.) Most verbs signifying to favor, help, please, trust, and their contraries; also to believe, persuade, command, obey, serve, resist, envy, threaten, pardon, and spare, take the dative: as,—

cūr mihi invidēs, why do you envy me?
mihi parcit atque īgnōscit, he spares and pardons me.
īgnōsce patriō dolorī (Liv. iii. 48), excuse a father's grief.
nōn parcam operae (Fam. xiii. 27), I will spare no pains.
sīc mihi persuāsī (Cat. M. 78), so I have persuaded myself.

NOTE. 1. — In these verbs the Latin retains an original intransitive meaning. Thus: invidere, to envy, was originally to look askance at one.

Note 2. — Some common phrases regularly take the dative precisely like verbs of similar meaning. Such are — $\,$

praestō esse, be on hand (cf. adesse).

mörem gerere, humor (cf. mörigerārī).

grātum facere, do a favor (cf. grātificārī).

dicto audiens esse, be obedient (cf. oboedire).

cui fidem habebat (B. G. i. 19), in whom he had confidence (cf. confidebat).

So, also, many phrases where no corresponding verb exists. Such are —

bene (male, pulchrē, aegrē, etc.) esse, to be well (ill, etc.) off.

iniūriam facere, do injustice to.

diem dicere, bring to trial (name a day for, etc.).

agere grātiās, to express one's thanks.

habēre grātiam, to feel thankful.

referre grātiam, to repay a favor.

opus esse, be necessary.

damnum dare, inflict an injury.

acceptum (expēnsum) ferre (esse), to credit (charge).

honorem habere, to pay honor to.

a. Some verbs apparently of the same meanings take the Accusative.

Such are iuvo, adiuvo, help; laedo, injure; iubeo, order; deficio, fail; delecto, please. Thus, —

hīc pulvis oculum meum laedit, this dust hurts my eye. [Cf. multa oculis nocent, many things are injurious to the eyes.]

b. Some verbs are used transitively with the Accusative or intransitively with the Dative without perceptible difference of meaning.

Such are adulor (generally accusative), aemulor (rarely dative), comitor, dēspērō, praestōlor, medeor, medicor. Thus,—

adūlātus est Antōniō (Nep. Att. 8), he flattered Antony. adūlārī Nerōnem (Tac. Ann. xvi. 19), to flatter Nero.

c. Some verbs are used transitively with the Accusative or intransitively with the Dative with a difference of meaning.

parti cīvium consulunt (Off. i. 85), they consult for a part of the citizens. cum te consuluissem (Fam. xi. 29), when I had consulted you.

metuens pueris (Plaut. Am. 1113), anxious for the children.

nec metuunt deos (Ter. Hec. 772), they fear not even the gods.

prospicite patriae (Cat. iv. 3), have regard for the State.

prospicere sedem senectūtī (Liv. iv. 49), to provide a habitation for old age.

Note. — Fido and confido, trust, take the Dative or the Ablative: as, — legionis decimae cui quam maxime confidebat (B. G. i. 42), of the tenth legion, in which he had the utmost confidence.

multum nătură loci confidebant (B. G. iii. 9), they had great confidence in the strength of their position (the nature of the place).

d. Some verbal nouns — as **insidiae**, ambush; invidia, envy — take the dative like the verbs from which they are derived: as, —

invidia cōnsulī (Sall.), ill-will against the consul (cf. invideō). obtemperātiō lēgibus (Leg. 42), obedience to the laws (cf. obtemperō). sibi ipsī respōnsiō (De Or. iii. 207), an answer to himself (cf. respondeō).

Note. — In these cases the dative depends immediately upon the verbal force of the noun and not on any complex idea (cf. 226. a and b).

- e. The Dative is also used —
- 1. With the impersonals libet (lubet), it pleases; licet, it is allowed: as, —

quod mihi māximē lubet (Fam. i. 8), what most pleases me. quasi tibi non liceret (Fam. vi. 8), as if you were not permitted.

2. With verbs compounded with satis, bene, and male: as, — mihi ipse numquam satisfaciō (Fam. i. 1), I never satisfy myself. optimō virō maledicere (Deiot. 28), to speak ill of a most excellent man. pulchrum est benefacere reipūblicae (Sall. Cat. 3), it is a glorious thing to benefit the State.

NOTE. — These are not real compounds, but phrases, and were apparently felt as such by the Romans. Thus, —

satis offició meo, satis illorum voluntati qui a me hoc petiverunt factum esse arbitrabor (Verr. v. 130), that enough has been done for, etc.

3. With the following: grātificor, grātulor, haereō (rarely), nūbō, permīttō, plaudō, probō, studeō, supplicō, excellō: as,—

haerentem capiti coronam (Hor. S. i. 10, 49), a wreath clinging to the head.

Pompējo sē grātificārī putant (Fam. i. 1), they suppose they are doing Pompey a service.

NOTE. — Misceö and iungō sometimes take the dative (see § 248. a. Rem.). Haereō usually takes the ablative, with or without in.

f. Many verbs ordinarily intransitive often have an Accusative of the direct object with the Dative of the indirect (cf. § 225. a): as,—cui cum rex crucem minitaretur (Tusc. i. 102), when the king threatened him with the cross.

imperat oppidanis decem talenta, he exacts of the townspeople ten talents.



A. Dative with Compounds.

228. (Rule 23.) Most verbs compounded with ad, ante, con, in, inter, ob, post, prae, pro, sub, super, and some with circum, take the dative of the indirect object: as, —

neque enim adsentior eis (Lael. 13), for I do not agree with them.

tempestātī obsequī artis est (Fam. i. 9, 21), it is a point of skill to yield to the weather.

omnibus negotiis non interfuit solum sed praefuit (id. i. 6), he not only had a hand in all matters, but took the lead in them.

quantum nātūra hominis pecudibus antecēdit (Off. i. 105), so far as man's nature is superior to brutes.

NOTE 1. - In these cases the dative depends not on the preposition, but on the compound verb in its acquired meaning. Hence, if the acquired meaning is not suited to an indirect object, the original construction of the simple verb remains or some different construction arises. Thus, in convocat suos, he calls his men together, the idea of calling is not so modified as to make an indirect object appropriate. So, hominem interficere, to make way with a man (kill him). But in praeficere imperatorem bello, to put a man as commander-in-chief in charge of a war, the meaning is suited to an indirect object (see a and c, and § 237. d).

NOTE 2. — Some of these verbs being originally transitive take also a direct object: as, ne offeramus nos periculis (Off. i. 83), that we may not expose ourselves to perils.

a. Some compounds of ad, ante, ob, with a few others, have acquired a transitive meaning, and take the accusative: as, —

nos oppugnat (Fam. i. 1), he opposes us. mūnus obīre (Lael. 7), to attend to a duty.

b. The adjective obvius and the adverb obviam with a verb take the dative : as, —

sī ille obvius eī futūrus non erat (Mil. 47), if he was not intending to get in his way.

mihi obviam vēnistī (Fam. ii. 16, 3), you came to meet me.

c. When place or motion is distinctly thought of, the verbs of § 228 regularly take a noun with a preposition, not the dative: as, —

in visceribus inhaerere (Tusc. iv. 24), it remains fixed in the vitals.

hominī coniuncto mēcum (Tull. 4), to a man united to me.

cum hoc concurrit ipse Eumenes (Nep. Eum. 4, 1), with him Eumenes himself engages in combat (runs together).

quae ā cēterārum gentium more dissentiunt (Font. 30), which differ from the custom of all other nations.

obicitur contră istorum impetus Macedonia (Font. 44), Macedonia is set to withstand their attacks. [Cf. sī quis vobīs error obiectus (Cæc. 5), if any mistake has been caused you.]

in segetem flamma incidit (Æn. ii. 304), the fire falls upon the standing corn.

NOTE. — As usage varies, the dictionary must be consulted for each verb.

229. (RULE 24.) Many verbs of taking away and the like take the Dative (especially of a person) instead of the Ablative of Separation (§ 243): as,—

mulieri ānulum dētrāxit, he took a ring from the woman. bona mihi abstulistī, you have robbed me of my gains.

- a. The distinct idea of motion, and, in general, names of things, require the ablative with a preposition (§ 258.a): as, illum ex periculo ēripuit (B. G. iv. 12), he dragged him out of danger.
- b. Sometimes the dative of the person and the ablative of the thing with a preposition are both used with the same verb: as, —

victoriam ēripī sibi ē manibus, that victory should be wrested from his hands (cf. § 243. b).

c. The dative is often used by the poets in constructions which would in prose require a noun with a preposition. So, especially, with verbs of contending (§ 248. b): as,—

placitone etiam pugnābis amorī (Æn. iv. 38), will you struggle even against a love that pleases you?

tibi certat (Ecl. v. 8), vies with you. [tēcum.]

sölstitium pecori defendite (Ecl. vii. 47), keep the summer heat from the flock. [ā pecore.]

lateri abdidit ensem (Æn. ii. 553), buried the sword in his side. [in latere, § 260. a.]

[For the Dative instead of ad with the Accusative, see § 225. b. 3.]

280. (RULE 25.) The passive of intransitive verbs that govern the dative can be used only *impersonally* (§ 146. d). The dative is retained (cf. § 225. e).

cui parcī potuit (Liv. xxi. 14), who could be spared?

non modo non invidētur illī aetātī vērum etiam favētur (Off. ii. 45), that

age (youth) is not only not envied, but is even favored.

5. Dative of Possession.

281. (RULE 26.) The Dative is used with esse and similar words to denote Possession: as,—

hominī cum deō similitūdō est, man has a likeness to God (there is, etc.). est mihi domī pater (Ecl. iii. 33), I have a father at home.

REMARK. — The Genitive or a Possessive with esse emphasizes the possessor; the Dative, the fact of possession: as, liber est meus, the book is mine (and no one's else); est mihi liber, I have a book (among other things). The latter is the usual form to denote simple possession, since habeo, have, generally signifies hold, often with some secondary meaning: as,—

legionem quam secum habebat (B. G. i. 8), the legion which he kept with him.

domitas habere libidines, to keep the passions under control.

a. Compounds of esse take the dative (except abesse and posse):
 as, —

deest mihi pecūnia, I lack money.

quid mihi proderit? in what will it help me (what will it profit me)?

- b. After nomen est, and similar expressions, the name is usually in the dative by a kind of apposition with the person: as,
 - cui Africano fuit cognomen (Liv. xxv. 2), whose (to whom) surname was Africanus.
- c. The name may also be in apposition with **nomen**; or in later Latin in the genitive (cf. \S 214. f): as,—

cui nomen Arethusa (Verr. iv. 118), [a fount] called Arethusa (to which is the name Arethusa).

puero nomen est Marcus (Marci), the boy's name is Marcus (to the boy, etc.).

6. Dative of the Agent.

232. (Rule 27.) The Dative of the Agent is used with the gerundive, to denote the person on whom the necessity rests: as,—

haec vöbīs provincia est defendenda (Man. 14), this province is for you to defend (to be defended by you).

mihi est pugnandum, I have to fight (i.e. the need of fighting is to me; compare mihi est liber, I have a book, § 231. Rem.).

Note. — This is the regular way of expressing the agent with the Second or Passive Periphrastic Conjugation (§ 113. d. 1). But when a dative is expressed governed by the verb itself, and rarely at other times, the agent is denoted by the Ablative with ab (§ 246) to avoid ambiguity: as, —

quibus est a võbis cõnsulendum (Manil. 6), for whom you must consult (for whom it must be consulted by you).

- (Cf. istī prīncipēs et sibi et cēterīs populī Rōmānī ūniversī auctōritātī pārendum esse fateantur (id. 64), let these leading men admit that both by them and by everybody else the authority of the Roman people as a whole must be obeyed. [Here there could be no ambiguity.])
- a. The dative of the agent is common after perfect participles. (especially when used in an adjective sense), but rare after other parts of the verb: as,—

mihi dēlīberātum et constitutum est (Rull. i. 25), I have deliberated and resolved (it has been deliberated by me).

mihi rēs tōta provisa est (Verr. iv. 91), the matter has been fully provided for by me.

b. The dative of the agent is used by the poets and later writers with almost any passive verb: as, —

neque cernitur ülli (Æn. i. 440), nor is seen by any.

fēlix est dicta sorori (Ov. Fast. iii. 597), she was called happy by her sister.

c. The dative of the person who sees or thinks is regularly used with videor, seem: as, —

vidētur mihi, it seems (or seems good) to me. dīs aliter vīsum [est] (Æn. ii. 428), it seemed otherwise to the gods.

Note. — The verb probare, approve (originally a mercantile word), takes a Dative of Reference (§ 235), which has become so firmly attached that it is retained with the passive, seemingly as Dative of Agent: as,—

haec sententia et illi et nobis probabatur (Fam. i. 7, 5), this view met both his approval and mine (was made acceptable to, etc.).

mihi ēgregiē probāta est ōrātiō tua (Tusc. iv. 8), your discourse was very satisfactory to me.

7. Dative of the Purpose or End.

233. (Rule 28.) The Dative is used to denote the Purpose or End.

This use of the dative, once apparently general, remains in only a few constructions. Thus, —

a. The dative of an abstract noun is used to show that for which a thing serves or which it accomplishes (Dative of Service), often with another dative of the person or thing affected: as,—

māgnō ūsuī nostrīs fuit (B. G. iv. 25), it was of great service to our men (for great use).

tertiam aciem nostrīs subsidiō mīsit (id. i. 52), he sent the third line as a relief to our men.

omnia deerant quae ad reficiendās nāvēs erant ūsuī (id. iv. 29), all things were wanting which were of use for repairing the ships.

NOTE. — The word frügī used as an adjective is a dative of this kind: as, — cōgis mē dīcere inimīcum frügī, you compel me to call my enemy honest. (Cf. erō frügī bonae (Plaut. Pseud. 468), I will be good for something.)

b. The Dative of concrete nouns is used to express purpose in prose in a few military expressions, and freely in poetry: as,—
receptul canere, to sound a retreat.

locum castris capere, to select a site for a camp.

optāvit locum rēgnō (Æn. iii. 109), he chose a place for a kingdom.

NOTE. — The construction of purpose or end is also found in the dative of the Gerundive (§ 299. b) and after Adjectives (§ 234).

8. Dative with Adjectives.

- 284. (Rule 29.) The dative is used with adjectives, to denote that to which the given quality is directed, for which it exists, or towards which it tends.
- a. The dative is used with adjectives (and a few adverbs) of fitness, nearness, likeness, service, inclination, and their opposites: as,—nihil est tam nātūrae aptum (Læl. 17), nothing is so fitted to nature. nihil difficile amantī putō (Or. 33), I think nothing hard to a lover. rēbus ipsīs pār et aequālis ōrātiō (id. 123), a speech equal and level with the subject.

castris idoneum locum deligit (B. G. i. 49), a suitable place for a camp. congruenter natūrae (Fin. iii. 26), in harmony with nature.

b. Adjectives of fitness or use take oftener the Accusative with ad to denote the purpose or end; but regularly the Dative of persons: as,—

aptus ad rem mīlitārem, fit for a soldier's duty.
locus ad īnsidiās aptior (Mil. 53), a place fitter for lying in wait.
nobīs ūtile est ad hanc rem, it is of use to us for this thing.

c. Adjectives and nouns of *inclination* and the like may take the Accusative with in or ergā: as, —

comis in uxorem (Hor. Ep. ii. 2, 133), kind to his wife.

dīvīna bonitās ergā hominēs (N. D. ii. 60), the divine goodness towards men.

d. Some adjectives of *likeness*, nearness, belonging, and a few others, ordinarily requiring the Dative, often take the Possessive Genitive. Thus.—

fuit hoc quondam proprium populi Romani (Manil. 32), this was once the peculiar characteristic of the Roman people.

1. The Genitive is especially used with these adjectives when they are used wholly or approximately as nouns. Thus, —

amīcus Ciceronī, friendly to Cicero. But, Ciceronis amīcus, a friend of Cicero; and even Ciceronis amīcissimus, a very great friend of Cicero. hī erant affīnēs istīus (Verr. iv. 14), these were this man's fellows.

2. After similis, like, the genitive is more common in early writers. Cicero uses the genitive of living objects, and either the genitive or dative of things: as,—

dominī similis es (Ter.) you're like your master (your master's like).

sīmia quam similis turpissima bestia nobīs (N. D. i. 97, quoted from Enn.), how like us is that wretched beast the ape!

sī enim hōc illī simile sit, est illud huic (N. D. i. 90), for if this is like that, that is like this.

e. The adjectives propior, proximus sometimes, and the adverbs propius, proxime more commonly, take the accusative, as if prepositions, like prope (see § 261.a).

propius perīculum (Liv. xxi. 1), nearer to danger.

proximē deōs accēssit Clōdius (Mil. 59), Clodius has come very near the gods.

proximus mare ōceanum (B. G. iii. 7), nearest the ocean.

o. Dative of Reference.

285. (Rule 30.) The Dative is often required not by any particular word, but by the general meaning of the sentence (dative of reference): as,

laudavit mihi fratrem, he praised my brother (out of regard for me; laudavit fratrem meum would imply no such motive).

meritos mactavit honores, taurum Neptūno, taurum tibi, pulcher Apollo (Æn. iii. 118), he offered the sacrifices due, a bull to Neptune, a bull to thee, beautiful Apollo.

- Note.—The dative in this construction is often called the <u>Dative of Advantage or Disadvantage</u> (datīvus commodī aut incommodī), as denoting the person or thing for whose benefit or to whose prejudice the action is performed.
- a. The dative of reference is often used to qualify a whole idea, instead of the Possessive Genitive modifying a single word: as,
 - iter Poenis vel corporibus suis obstruere (Cat. Maj. 75), to block the march of the Carthaginians even with their own bodies (to block, etc., for the disadvantage of, etc.).
- b. The dative is used of the person from whose point of view a situation or direction is defined.

This construction answers to the English as you go in, and the like. The person is commonly denoted indefinitely by a participle in the plural: as, —

- oppidum prīmum Thessaliae venientibus ab Ēpīrō (B. C. iii. 80), the first town of Thessaly as you come from Epirus (to those coming, etc.). est urbe ēgressīs tumulus (Æn. ii. 713), there is, as you come out of the city, a mound (to those having come out).
- c. The dative is (by a Greek idiom) rarely modified by nolens, volens, participles of nolo, volo, or by some similar word: as,
 - ut quibusque bellum invitis aut cupientibus erat (Tac. Ann. i. 59), as each might receive the war reluctantly or gladly.
- d. The dative is used idiomatically without any verb in colloquial questions and exclamations: as,—

quo mihi fortunam (Hor. Ep. i. 5. 12), of what use to me is fortune? unde mihi lapidem (Hor. Sat. ii. 7. 116), where can I get a stone?

vae victis, woe to the conquered.

em tibi, there, take that (there, for you)! [Cf. § 236.]

hei mihi, ah, me!

10. Ethical Dative.

286. The Dative of the Personal Pronouns is used to show a certain interest felt by the person indicated: 1 as,—

¹ Compare "I'll rhyme you so eight years together." — As You Like It.

quid mihi Celsus agit (Hor.), what is my friend Celsus doing? suo sibi servit patri (Plaut. Capt. Prol.), he serves his own father.

This construction is called the Ethical Dative (dativus ēthicus). It is really only a special case of the dative of reference.

REMARK. - To express FOR, meaning instead of, in defence of, in behalf of, the ablative with pro must be used: as, —

pro patria morī (Hor. Od. iii. 2), to die for one's country.

III. ACCUSATIVE.

The uses of the accusative may be classified as follows:

- PRIMARY OBJECT: { I. Directly affected by the Action (§ 237).
 Effect of the Action { Thing produced (§ 237).
 Cognate Accusative (§ 238).
- 2. Two Accusatives: $\begin{cases} 1. & \text{Predicate Accusative (of Naming, etc.) (§ 239. a).} \\ 2. & \text{Of Asking or Teaching (§ 239. c).} \\ 3. & \text{Of Concealing (§ 239. d).} \end{cases}$
- - 1. Adverbial (\S 240. a, b).

z. Direct Object.

237. (Rule 31.) The Direct Object of a transitive verb is put in the Accusative (§ 177).

The accusative of the Direct Object denotes (a) that which is directly affected, or (b) that which is caused or produced by the action of the verb: as. ---

- (a) Brūtus Caesarem interfēcit, Brutus killed Cæsar.
- (b) aedem facere, to make a temple. [Compare proelium pügnäre, to fight a battle, § 238.]

NOTE. — There is no definite line by which transitive verbs can be distinguished from intransitive. Verbs which usually take a direct object (expressed or implied) are called transitive, but many of these are often used intransitively or absolutely. Thus timeo, I fear, is transitive in the sentence inimicum timeo, I fear my enemy, but intransitive (absolute) in noli timēre, don't be afraid.

a. The object of a transitive verb in the active voice becomes its subject in the passive, and is put in the nominative (§ 177. a): as,—

Brūtus Caesarem interfēcit, Brutus killed Casar.

Caesar ā Brūtō interfectus est, Casar was killed by Brutus.

domum aedificat, he builds a house.

domus aedificatur, the house is building (being built).

b. Many verbs apparently intransitive, expressing *feeling*, take an accusative, and may be used in the passive: as, —

meum căsum lüctumque doluerunt (Sest. 145), they grieved [at] my calamity and sorrow.

sī non Acrisium rīsissent Iūppiter et Venus (Hor. O. iii. 16. 5), if Jupiter and Venus had not laughed [at] Acrisius.

c. Verbs of taste, smell, and the like take an accusative of the quality: as, —

vinum redolēns (Cic.), smelling [of] wine.

herbam mella sapiunt (Plin.), the honey tastes [of] grass. *

NOTE. — These are properly Cognate Accusatives (§ 238).

d. Verbs of motion, compounds of circum and trāns, and a few others, often become transitive, and take the accusative (cf. § 228. a): as,—

consulatum ineunt (Liv. ii. 28), they enter upon the consulship.

sī īnsulam adīsset (B. G. iv. 20), if he should go to the island.

trānsīre flümen (id. ii. 23), to cross the river (cf. § 239. b).

cīvēs quī circumstant senātum (Cat. i. 21), the citizens who stand about the senate.

e. The accusative is used with the impersonals decet, delectat, invat, oportet, fallit, fugit, praeterit: as, —

te non praeterit (Fam. i. 8), it does not escape your notice.

mē pedibus dēlectat claudere verba (Hor. Sat. ii. 1. 28), my delight is (it pleases me) to arrange words in measure.

nisi më fallit, unless I am mistaken (unless it deceives me).

So after latet in poetry and post-classical prose: as, -

latet plērosque (Plin. ii. 82), it is unknown to most persons.

Note 3. — Many verbs usually intransitive are sometimes used transitively from a similarity of meaning with other verbs that regularly take the accusative: as,—

multa gemēns īgnōminiam (Georg. iii. 226), groaning much at the disgrace. [Cf. doleō, § 237. b.]

festinare fugam (Æn. iv. 575), to hasten their flight. [Cf. accelero.]

f. In early and popular usage some nouns and adjectives derived from transitive verbs retain verbal force sufficient to govern the accusative: as,—

quid tibi hanc tactio est (Plaut. Poen. 1308), what business have you to touch her? [Cf. tango.]

mīrābundī bestiam (App. Met. iv. 16), full of wonder at the creature.
[Cf. mīror.]

g. In early usage the impersonal gerundive with esse governs the accusative (\S 294. c): as, —

quam nobis ingrediendum sit (Cat. Maj. 6), which (road) we must enter upon. [Here Cicero purposely uses an archaic construction.]

h. Many verbs ordinarily transitive may be used absolutely (§ 237. note), having their natural object in the ablative with dē: as,—

priusquam Pompōnius de eius adventū cognosceret (B. C. iii. 101), before Pomponius could learn of his coming. [Cf. eius adventū cognito, his arrival being discovered.]

i. For Accusative and Genitive after Impersonals, see § 221. b.

2. Cognate Accusative.

288. (Rule 32.) A neuter verb often takes the accusative of a noun of kindred meaning, usually modified by an adjective or in some other manner.

This construction is called the Cognate Accusative or Accusative of Kindred Signification. Thus,—

tertiam iam aetātem hominum vīvēbat (Cat. Maj. 31), he was now living the third generation of men.

coire societatem, to [go together and] form an alliance.

a. The Cognate Accusative is often loosely used by the poets: as,—saltāre Cyclopa (Hor. Sat. i. 5. 63), to dance the Cyclops (represent in dancing).

Amaryllida resonāre (Ecl. i. 5), to reëcho [the name of] Amaryllis. intonuit laevum (Æn. ii. 693), it thundered on the left.

b. A neuter pronoun or colorless noun or adjective is very common as cognate accusative (cf. §§ 148. a and 240. a). Thus,—

Empedocles multa alia peccat (N. D. i. 29), Empedocles commits many other slips.

quid më ista laedunt (Agr. ii. 32), what harm do those things do me? hoc të moneo, I give you this warning (cf. note, below). id laetor, I rejoice at this (cf. note, below).

So in many common phrases: as, -

sī quid ille sē velit (B. G. i. 34), if he should want anything of him (if he should want him in anything).

numquid me vis, can I do anything more for you? (there is nothing you want of me, is there?) [A common form of leave-taking.] id valet, it amounts to this.

NOTE. — In these cases substantives with a definite meaning would be in some other construction: as, —

bonīs rēbus laetārī, to rejoice at prosperity. [Also: in, dē, or ex.] dē testāmentō monēre, to remind one of the will. [Later: genitive, §219.c.]

c. A few verbs in isolated expressions take the accusative from a forcing of their meaning. Such expressions are —

ferīre foedus, to strike a treaty (i.e. to sanction by striking down a victim). vincere iūdicium (spōnsiōnem, rem, hōc), to prevail on a trial, etc. [As if the case were a difficulty to overcome; cf. vincere iter, Æn. vi. 688.] terram nāvigāre (Fin. ii. 112), to sail over the land. [Perhaps quoted from a poet.]

aequor nāvigāre, to sail the sea. [As if it were trānsīre, § 237. d.] maria aspera iūrō (Æn. vi. 351), I swear by the rough seas. [The accusative with verbs of swearing is chiefly poetic.]

3. Two Accusatives.

239. Some transitive verbs take a second accusative in addition to their Direct Object.

This second accusative is either (1) a Predicate Accusative or (2) a Secondary Object.

a. Predicate Accusative.

1. An accusative in the Predicate referring to the same person or thing as the Direct Object, but not in apposition with it, is called a Predicate Accusative (cf. § 185. head-note).

a. (Rule 33.) Verbs of naming, choosing, appointing, making, esteeming, showing, and the like, may take a Predicate Accusative:

Ciceronem consulem creare, to elect Cicero consul.

mē augurem nomināvērunt (Phil. ii. 4), they nominated me for augur.

hominem prae se neminem putavit (Cic.), he thought nobody a man in comparison with himself.

NOTE 1. - The predicate accusative may be an adjective: as, -

hominēs ex ferīs et immānibus mītēs reddidit et mānsuētōs (Inv. i. 2), has made men from wild and barbarous [creatures] gentle and mild.

NOTE 2. — In changing from the active voice to the passive, the predicate accusative becomes predicate nominative (§ 185): as, —

rex ab suis appellatur (B. G. vii. 4), he is called king by his [subjects].

b. Secondary Object.

- 2. (RULE 34.) The Accusative of the Secondary Object is used (along with the direct object) to denote something more remotely affected by the action of the verb.
- b. Transitive verbs compounded with prepositions sometimes take a Secondary Object, originally governed by the preposition: as,—

Caesar Germanos flumen traicit (B. C. i. 83), Casar throws the Germans across the river.

Note 1. — But with these verbs the preposition is more commonly repeated, or sometimes the ablative is used: as, —

donec res suas trans Halyn flumen traicerent (Liv. xxxviii. 25), till they should get their possessions across the river Halys.

(exercitus) Pado traiectus Cremonam (Liv. xxi. 56), the army was conveyed across the Po to Cremona (by way of the Po, § 258. g).

NOTE 2. — The secondary object may be retained with a passive verb: as, ~

Belgae Rhēnum trāductī sunt (B. G. ii. 4), the Belgians were led over the Rhine.

NOTE 3.—Sometimes the Secondary Object appears to become the subject of a passive verb; but this comes from a change of meaning, and the object is really Direct. See the Remark.

Remark. — The double construction indicated in b is possible only when the force of the preposition and the force of the verb are each distinctly felt in the compound, the verb governing the Direct, and the preposition the Secondary object.

But often the two parts of the compound become closely united to form a transitive verb of simple meaning. So trāiciō comes to mean either (1) to pierce (anybody) [by hurling] or (2) to cross (a river, etc.): as,—

- (1) gladio hominem traiecit, he pierced the man with a sword. [Here iacio has lost all transitive force, and serves simply to give the force of a verb to the meaning of trans, and to tell the manner of the act.]
- (2) Rhodanum trāiēcit, he crossed the Rhone. [Here iaciō has become simply a verb of motion, and trāiciō is hardly distinguishable from trānseō.]

In these examples hominem and Rhodanum, which would be secondary objects if trāiēcit were used in its primary signification, have become the direct objects. Hence in the passive construction they become the subjects and are put in the nominative. Thus,—

homō trāiectus est gladiō, the man was pierced with a sword.

Rhodanus trāiectus est, the Rhone was crossed.

The poetical traiectus lora (Æn. ii. 273), pierced with thongs, comes from a mixture of two constructions:—

- (1) eum trāiēcit lora, he rove thongs through him, 1 and
- (2) eum trāiēcit lorīs, he pierced him with thongs.

In putting the sentence into a passive form, the direct object of the former (lora) is irregularly kept, and the direct object of the latter (eum) is made the subject.

c. (RULE 35.) Verbs of asking and teaching may take two accusatives, one of the Person (direct object), and the other of the Thing (secondary object): as,—

mē sententiam rogāvit, he asked me my opinion. docēre pueros elementa, to teach children their A B C's.

Note 1.—Some verbs of asking take the ablative of the person with a preposition instead of the accusative. So, always, petō (ab), quaerō (ex, ab, dē) often postulō (ab), and occasionally others: as,—

pācem ab Romānīs petiērunt (B. G. ii. 13), they sought peace from the Romans.

NOTE. 2. — With the passive of verbs of asking or teaching, the *person* or the *thing* may be used as subject: as, —

Caesar sententiam rogātus est, Cæsar was asked his opinion.

REMARK. — The accusative of the *thing* may be retained with the passive of rogo, and of verbs of teaching, and occasionally with a few other verbs: as, —

¹ Perhaps not found in the active, but cf. traiecto fune (Æn. v. 488).

fuerant hoc rogati (Cæl. 64), they had been asked this.

Cicero per legatos cuncta edoctus (Sall. Cat. 45), Cicero being informed of everything through the ambassadors.

But with most verbs of asking in prose the accusative of the thing becomes the subject-nominative, and the person is expressed by the ablative with a preposition: as,—

ne postulantur quidem vires a senectute (Cat. M. 34), strength is not even expected of an old man (asked from old age).

d. The verb colo, conceal, may take two accusatives, and the usually intransitive lateo, lie hid, an accusative of the person (cf. § 237. e): as,—

non të celavi sermonem T. Ampi (Fam. ii. 16), I did not conceal from you the talk of T. Ampius.

nec latuere doli fratrem Iunonis (Æn. i. 130), nor did the wiles of Juno escape the notice of her brother.

4. Idiomatic Uses.

- 240. The Accusative has the following special uses:—
- a. A neuter pronoun or adjective is used as cognate accusative with an adverbial force (Adverbial Accusative, cf. § 238. b): as,—

quid moror, why do I delay?

dulce loquentem (Hor. Od. i. 22. 24), sweetly speaking.

acerba tuens (Æn. ix. 794), looking cruelly.

torvum clāmat (id. vii. 399), he cries harshly.

Note. — This use does not differ from the cognate accusative except that in some cases the connection of the accusative with the verb has faded out so that the words are real adverbs. But no fixed line can be drawn between these two constructions.

b. The accusative is found in a few adverbial phrases: as,—

id temporis, at that time.

id (istuc) aetātis, at that age.

id (quod) genus, of that (what) sort (perhaps originally nominative).

meam vicem, on my part.

maximam partem, for the most part.

virile secus, of the male sex (probably originally in apposition).

cetera, in other respects.

quod sī, but (as to which) if.

quid est quod, why is it that?

c. The so-called *synecdochical* or Greek accusative is used by the poets to denote the part affected: as, —

caput nectentur (Æn. v. 309), their head shall be bound (they shall be bound about the head).

ārdentīs oculõs suffectī sanguine et īgnī (id. ii. 210), their glaring eyes bloodshot and blazing with fire (suffused as to their eyes, etc.).

nūda genū (id. i. 320), bare to the knee.

Note. — In many apparently similar expressions the accusative may be regarded as the direct object of a verb in the middle voice (§ 111. a): as,—

inutile ferrum cingitur (Æn. ii. 510), he girds on the useless steel.

nodō sinūs collēcta fluentīs (id. i. 320), having her flowing folds gathered in a knot.

umeros insternor pelle leonis (id. ii. 722), I cover my shoulders with a lion's skin.

d. The accusative is used in exclamations: as, -

O fortunātam rempublicam, oh, fortunate republic! [Cf. O fortunāta mors (Phil. xiv. 31), oh, happy death! (§ 241. c).]

mē miserum, ah, wretched me!

ēn quātuor ārās (Ecl. v. 65), lo, four altars !

pro deum fidem, good heavens (oh, protection of the gods)!

huncine hominem (Verr. v. 62), this man, good heavens!

Ō mē înfēlīcem (Mil. 102), oh, unhappy me!

Note. — The omission of the verb has given rise to some other idiomatic accusatives. Such are —

salūtem (sc. dīcit) (in letters), greeting. quō mihi fortūnam, of what use is fortune? [Here no verb is thought of.]

- e. (RULE 37.) Duration of time and extent of space are expressed by the accusative (see §§ 256, 257).
- f. (RULE 36.) The subject of the infinitive mood is in the accusative. This is especially frequent after words of knowing, thinking, telling, and perceiving (verba sentiendi et declarandi, see § 272).
- g. The accusative in later writers is sometimes used in apposition with a clause.
- h. For the accusative of the End of Motion, see § 258; for that after postrīdiē, propior, etc., see § 261. a.

[For the Accusative with Prepositions, see § 152. a, c.]

IV. VOCATIVE.

- 241. The Vocative is the case of direct address: as,—
 Tiberine pater, tē sancte precor (Liv. ii. 10), O, father Tiber, thee, holy
 one, I pray.
- a. A noun in the nominative in apposition with the subject of the imperative mood is sometimes used instead of the vocative: as, audī tū, populus Albānus (Liv. i. 24), hear, thou people of Alba.
- b. The vocative of an adjective is sometimes used instead of the nominative, where the verb is in the second person: as,—

censorem trabeate salūtas (Pers. iii. 29), robed you salute the censor.

- c. The nominative may be used in exclamations (cf. § 240. d): as,—
 ën dextra fidësque (Æn. iv. 597), lo, the faith and plighted word!
- d. The word macte is used as a predicate in the phrase macte estō (virtūte), success attend your (valor). Thus,—

iubērem tē mācte virtūte esse (Liv. ii. 12), I should bid you go on and prosper in your valor.

Note. — As the quantity of the final e in macte is not determinable, it may be that the word was an adverb, as in bene est, and the like. (See American Journal of Philology, Vol. I.)

V. ABLATIVE.

242. The Ablative is used to denote the relations expressed in English by the prepositions from, in, at, with, by: as,—

līberāre metū, to deliver from fear. caecus avāritiā, blind with avarice. occīsus gladiō, slain by the sword.

The following are the uses of the Latin Ablative, classed according to the original cases which have been combined in it:—

I. Of Separation, Privation, and Want (§ 243).
2. Of Source (participles of origin, etc.) (§ 244).
3. Of Cause (gaudeō, dīgnus, etc.) (§ 24).
4. Of Agent (with ab after Passives) (§ 246).
5. Of Comparison (THAN) (§ 247).

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2. Instrumental
ABLATIVE (with):

1. Of Manner, Means, and Instrument (§ 248).
2. Of Accompaniment (with cum) (§ 248. a).
3. Of Object with the Deponents ütor, etc. (§ 249).
4. Of Degree of Difference (§ 250).
5. Of Quality (with Adjectives) (§ 251).
6. Of Price and Exchange (§ 252).
7. Of Specification (§ 253).

3. LOCATIVE ABLATIVE (in, on, at):
1. Of Place where (commonly with in) (§ 254).
2. Of Idiomatic Expressions (§ 254. a).
3. Of Time and Circumstance (§ 256).
4. Ablative Absolute (§ 255).
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I. Ablative of Separation.

- 243. (Rule 38.) Words signifying Separation or Privation are followed by the ablative, with or without a preposition.
- a. Verbs meaning to remove, set free, be absent, deprive, and want, require the ablative: as, —

oculis se privavit (Fin. v. 87), he deprived himself of eyes.

lēgibus solūtus, relieved from the obligation of laws.

omnī Galliā interdīcit Romānos (B. G. i. 46), he (Ariovistus) bars the Romans from the whole of Gaul.

voluptātibus carēre (Cat. Maj. 7), to lack enjoyments.

non egeo medicina (Læl. 10), I want no physic. magno me metu liberabis (Cat. i. 10), you will relieve me of great fear.

b. Verbs compounded with **ā**, ab, dā ex take the simple ablative when used figuratively; but when used literally to denote separation or motion, they usually require a preposition (see § 258). Thus,—

conatu desistere (B. G. i. 8), to desist from the attempt.

abīre magistrātū, to leave one's office.

abstinēre iniūriā, to refrain from wrong.

But, - aberrare a proposito (Cic.), to wander from the point.

de provincia decedere (Verr. ii. 49), to withdraw from one's province.

ex cīvitāte excēssēre (B. G. vi. 8), they departed from the state. [But cf. fīnibus suīs excēsserant (id. iv. 18), they had left their own territory.]

ā māgnō dēmīssum nōmen Iūlō (Æn. i. 288), a name descended (sent down) from great Iulus.

Note. — For the Dative used instead of the Ablative of Separation, see § 229.

- c. For the ablative of the actual place whence in idiomatic expressions, see § 258. a, and note 2.
 - d. Adjectives denoting freedom and want take the ablative: as,—urbs nūda praesidiō (Att. vii. 13), the city naked of defence. immūnis mīlitiā (Liv. i. 43), free of military service. plēbs orba tribūnīs (Leg. iii. 9), the people deprived of tribunes.

Note. — Some adjectives of want take the genitive (see § 218. a).

e. (RULE 39.) Opus and usus, signifying need, are followed by the ablative: as, —

magistrātibus opus est (Leg. iii. 5), there is need of magistrates. nunc vīribus ūsus (Æn. viii. 441), now there is need of strength.

NOTE. — With these words the ablative of the perfect participle, with or without a noun, is often found (§ 292. b): as,—

opus est tuā expromptā memoriā atque astūtiā (Ter. And. 723), I must have your good memory and cleverness set to work.

properātō opus erat (Mil. 49), there was need of haste.

facto usus est, it is desirable to do (there is need of it's being done).

REMARK. — Frequently opus is in the predicate, with the thing needed in the nominative as subject: as, —

dux nobis et auctor opus est (Fam. ii. 6, 4), we need a chief and responsible adviser (a chief, etc., is necessary for us).

sī quid ipsī opus esset (B. G. i. 34), if he himself wanted anything (if anything should be necessary for him).

f. Egeo and indigeo often take the genitive (§ 223): as,—

ne quis auxili egeat (B. G. vi. 11), lest any require aid.

quae ad consolandum māioris ingenī et ad ferendum sīngulāris virtūtis indigent (Fam. vi. 4, 2), [sorrows] which for their comforting need more ability, and for endurance unusual courage.

2. Ablative of Source and Material.

244. (Rule 40.) The ablative (with or without a preposition) is used to denote the Source from which anything is derived, or the Material of which it consists.

These ablatives commonly take a preposition: as, —

Source : —

Rhēnus oritur ex Lēpontiis (B. G. iv. 10), the Rhine rises in (from) the country of the Lepontii.

2. Material: -

valvās māgnificentiōrēs, ex aurō atque ebore perfectiōrēs (Verr. iv. 124), more splendid doors, more finely wrought of gold and ivory.

templum de marmore ponam (Georg. iii. 13), I'll build a temple of marble.

NOTE 1. — In poetry the preposition is often omitted.

NOTE 2. — The Ablative of Material is a development of the Ablative of Source (cf. § 214).

a. Participles denoting birth or origin are followed by the Ablative of Source, generally without a preposition: 1 as,—

Iove nātus et Māiā (N. D. iii. 56), son of Jupiter and Maia. quō sanguine crētus (Æn. ii. 74), born of what blood.

REMARK. — A preposition (ab, dē, ex) is usually expressed with the name of the *mother*, and often with that of other ancestors: as, —

Tros est generatus ab illo (Ov. Fast. iv. 33), Tros was sprung from him. Belus et omnes a Belo (An. i. 730), Belus and all his descendants.

b. Rarely the place of birth is expressed by the ablative; as, —
 dēsīderāvit C. Felgīnātem Placentiā, A. Grānium Puteolīs (B. C. iii. 71),
 he lost C. Felgīnas of Placentia, A. Granius of Puteoli.

NOTE. — The Roman tribe is regularly expressed by the ablative : as, —

- Q. Verrem Romilia (Verr. i. 23), Quintus Verres of the Romilian tribe.
- c. Some verbs may take the Ablative of Material without a preposition. Such are constare, consistere, and continers. But with constare, ex is more common. Thus,—

domūs amoenitās non aedificio sed silvā constābat (Nep. Att. 13), the charm of the house consisted not in the buildings but in the woods.

ex animo constamus et corpore (Fin. iv. 19), we consist of soul and body. vita corpore et spiritu continetur (Marc. 28), life consists of body and spirit.

d. The Ablative of Material without a preposition is used with facere, fieri, and like words, in the sense of do with, become of: as,—quid hōc homine faciātis (Verr. II. i, 42), what are you going to do with this man?

quid Tulliola mea fiet (Fam. xiv. 4), what will become of my dear Tullia? quid të futurum est (Verr. ii. 155), what will become of you?

e. The Ablative of Material with ex, and in poetry without a preposition, sometimes depends directly on a noun: as,—

non pauca pocula ex auro (Verr. iv. 62), not a few cups of gold. scopulis pendentibus antrum (Æn. i. 166), a cave of hanging rocks.

¹ Such are nātus, satus, ēditus, genitus, ortus, prognātus, generātus, crētus, creātus, oriundus.

3. Ablative of Cause.

245. (Rule 41.) The ablative (with or without a preposition) is used to express *Cause*.

nimiō gaudiō paene dēsipiēbam (Fam. ii. 9), I was almost wild from too great joy.

neglegentiä plectimur (Læl. 85), we are chastised for negligence.

certis de causis, for certain reasons.

mare a sole lucet (Acad. ii. 105), the sea gleams in the sun (from the sun).

- a. (RULE 42.) Certain verbs and adjectives regularly take the ablative of cause without a preposition. These are
 - 1. The adjectives dignus, indignus: as, -
 - vir patre avo māioribus suīs dīgnissimus (Phil. iii. 25), a man most worthy of his father, grandfather, and ancestors.
 - te omni honore indignissimum iudicat (Vatin. 39), he judges you entirely unworthy of every honor.
- 2. The verbs dignor, laboro (also with ex), exsilio, exsulto, triumpho, lacrimo, ardeo: as,—

haud equidem tālī mē dīgnor honore (Æn. i. 335), I do not deem myself worthy of such an honor.

doleō tē aliīs malīs labōrāre (Fam. iv. 3), I am sorry that you suffer with other ills.

ex aere aliëno laborare (B. C. iii. 22), to labor under debt (lit., from another's money).

exsiluī gaudio (Fam. xvi. 16), I jumped for joy.

delicto dolere (Læl. 90), to grieve for the fault.

Note 1.— For gaudeo and glorior, see § 254. b.

NOTE 2. — Dignus and indignus sometimes take the genitive in colloquial usage and in poetry: as, —

dīgnus salūtis (Plaut. Trin. 1153), worthy of safety.

māgnōrum haud umquam indīgnus avōrum (Æn. xii. 649), never unworthy my great ancestors.

Note 3. — For the construction of dignus and indignus with verbs, see \S 320. f.

b. The motive which influences the mind of the person acting is expressed by the ablative of cause; the object exciting the emotion often by ob or propter with the accusative: as,—

non ob praedam aut spoliandi cupidine (Tac. H. i. 63), not for booty or through lust of plunder.

amīcitia ex sē et propter sē expetenda (Fin. ii. 83), friendship must be sought of and for itself.

Note. — But these constructions are often confused: as,—

- pārēre lēgibus propter metum (Parad. 34), to obey the laws on account of fear. [Here metum is almost equal to "the terrors of the law," and propter is used where the ablative would be more natural.]
- c. The ablatives causa and gratia, for the sake of, are used with a genitive preceding, or with a pronoun in agreement: as,—

eā causā, on account of this; quā grātiā (Ter. Eun. 99), for what purpose? meā causā, for my sake; meā grātiā (Plaut.), for my sake.

praedictionis causa (N. D. iii, 5), by way of prophecy.

exemplī grātiā (verbī grātiā), for example.

NOTE. — But grātiā with possessives in this use is rare.

4. Ablative of Agent.

246. (RULE 43.) The Voluntary Agent after a passive verb is expressed by the ablative with \bar{a} or ab: as, —

laudātur ab hīs, culpātur ab illīs (Hor. Sat. i. 2. 11), he is praised by these, blamed by those.

nē virtūs ab audāciā vincerētur (Sest. 92), that valor might not be overborne by audacity.

REMARK. — The ablative of the agent (which requires a or ab) must be carefully distinguished from the ablative of instrument, which has no preposition (§ 248. c. 1). Thus, —

occīsus gladio, slain by a sword; but, occīsus ab hoste, slain by an enemy.

a. The ablative of the agent with ab is sometimes used after neuter verbs that have a passive sense: as,—

perīre ab hoste, to be slain by an enemy.

b. The agent, if conceived as instrument or means, is expressed by per with the accusative, or by operā with a genitive or possessive: as,—

Caesar certior factus est a legatis, Caesar was informed by the ambassadors (in person). But —

Caesar certior factus est per legatos, Caesar was informed by ambassadors (i.e. by means of ambassadors).

non mea opera evenit (Ter. Hec. 228), it has n't happened through me (by my exertions).

NOTE 1.—An animal is usually regarded not as the agent, but as the means or instrument. Hence the simple ablative is used. But ab sometimes occurs. Thus,—

equō vehī, to ride on horseback (be conveyed by means of a horse). [Not ab equō.] But —

Lūcānō cum sīc lacerēris ab ursō (Mart. Ep. 8), since you are thus mangled by a Lucanian bear.

NOTE 2. — For the Dative of the Agent with the Gerundive, see § 232.

5. Ablative of Comparison.

247. (Rule 44.) The Comparative degree is followed by the ablative (signifying THAN): as,

Cato est Cicerone eloquentior, Cato is more eloquent than Cicero.

quid nobis duobus laboriosius est (Mil. 5), what more burdened with toil than we two?

vilius argentum est auro, virtūtibus aurum (Hor. Ep. i. 1. 52), silver is less precious than gold, gold than virtue.

a. (RULE 45.) The comparative may be followed by quam, than. When quam is used, the two things compared are put in the same case (cf. \S 208. a).

The construction with quam is required when the first of the things compared is in any other case than the nominative or accusative. With those cases its use is optional. Thus,—

contionibus accommodatior est quam iūdiciis (Clu. 2), fitter for popular assemblies than for courts.

misericordia dignior quam contumelia (Piso 32), more worthy of pity than of disgrace.

REMARK. — Relative pronouns having a definite antecedent never take quam in this construction, but always the ablative: as, —

rēx erat Aenēās nōbīs, quō iūstior alter, etc. (Æn. i. 544), Æneas was our king, than whom no other was more righteous, etc.

NOTE. — The poets sometimes use the ablative of comparison where the prose construction requires quam: as,—

pane egeo iam mellītis potiore placentis (Hor. Ep. i. 10. 11), I want bread better than honey-cakes.

b. The idiomatic ablatives opinione, spē, solito, dioto, aequo, crēdibili, and iūsto are used after comparatives instead of a clause: as,—

gravius aequo (Sall.), more seriously than was right.
celerius opinione (Fam. xiv. 23), faster than one would think.
amnis solito citatior (Liv. xxiii. 19), a stream swifter than its wont.
serius spē omnium (id. ii. 3), later than all hoped (than the hope of all).

c. After the comparatives plūs, minus, amplius, longius without quam, a word of measure or number is often used with no change in its case: as,—

plūs septingenti captī (Liv. xli. 12), more than 700 were taken.
plūs tertiā parte interfectā (Cæs.), more than a third part being slain.
spatium non amplius sexcentorum pedum (id.), a space of not more than
600 feet.

d. Alius is sometimes used with the ablative in poetic and colloquial use; in formal prose it takes āc (atque), nisi, quam. Thus,—

alius Lysippo (Hor.), another than Lysippus.

in what way you compel me?

alio ingenio ac tu (Plaut.), of a different disposition from you.

erat historia nihil aliud nisi annalium confectio (De Or. ii. 52), history was nothing else but a compiling of records.

e. The comparative of an adverb is usually followed by quam, rarely by the ablative except in poetry. Thus,—

tempus tē citius quam ōrātiō dēficeret (Rosc. Am. 89), time would fail you sooner than words. But —

cūr Sybaris olīvum sanguine vīperīnō cautius vītat (Hor. Od. i. 8. 9), why does Sybaris shun oil more carefully than viper's blood?

6. Ablative of Manner.

248. (RULE 46.) The manner of an action is denoted by the ablative; usually with cum, unless a limiting adjective is used with the neun. Thus,—

cum celeritäte vēnit, he came with speed. But—
summā celeritāte vēnit, he came with the greatest speed.
quid rēfert quā mē ratione cogātis (Læl. 26), what difference does it make

Note. — But cum is often used even when the ablative has a limiting adjective: as, —

quanto cum periculo id fecerit (B. G. i. 17), at what risk he did this.

REMARK. — In poetry the ablative of manner often omits cum: as, a mons aquae sequitur cumulo (Æn. i. 105), a mountain of water follows in a mass. [Cf. murmure (id. 124); rimis (id. 123).]

7. Ablative of Accompaniment.

a. (RULE 47.) Accompaniment is denoted by the ablative, regularly with cum: as, —

cum coniugibus ac liberis vestris, with your wives and children.

cum funditoribus sagittariisque flumen transgressi (B. G. ii. 19), having crossed the river with the archers and slingers.

Note. — The ablative is used without cum in military phrases, and here and there by early writers: as, —

subsequēbātur omnibus copiis (B. G. ii. 19), he followed close with all his forces.

hoc praesidio profectus est (Verr. II. i, 86), with this force he set out.

REMARK. — Misceo and iungo, with their compounds, and confundo may take either (1) the Ablative of Accompaniment with or without cum, or (2) sometimes the Dative: as, —

mīxta dolore voluptās (B. Al. 56), pleasure mingled with pain.

fletumque cruori miscuit (Ov. Met. iv. 140), and mingled tears with blood. Caesar eas cohortes cum suo exercitu coniunxit (B. C. i. 18), Caesar united those cohorts with his own army.

b. Words of Contention and the like require cum: as, -

armis cum hoste certare, to fight with the enemy in arms.

libenter haec cum Q. Catulo disputarem (Manil. 66), I should gladly discuss these matters with Quintus Catulus.

Note. — But words of contention may take the Dative in poetry (see § 229. c).

8. Ablative of Means.

c. 1. (Rule 48.) The ablative is used to denote the means or instrument of an action: as,—

certantīs pūguis, calcibus, unguibus, morsū dēnique (Tusc. v. 77), fighting with fists, heels, nails, and even teeth.

cum pūgnīs et calcibus concīsus esset (Verr. iii. 56), when he had been pummelled with their fists and heels.

2. The Ablative of Means is used with verbs and adjectives of filling, abounding, and the like: as, —

aggere et crātibus fossās explent (B. G. vii. 86), they fill up the ditches with earth and fascines.

totum montem hominibus complevit (id. i. 24), he filled the whole mountain with men.

opīmus praedā (Verr. II. i, 132), rich with spoils.

REMARK. — In poetry the Genitive is often used with these words by a Greek idiom. But compleo, impleo, plonus, and refertus often take the genitive in prose (cf. § 223). Thus, —

omnia plēna lūctūs et maeroria fuērunt (Sest. 128), everything was full of grief and mourning.

249. (Rule 49.) The deponents utor, fruor, fungor, pottor, vescor, with several of their compounds, govern the ablative: as,—

ütar vestrā benīgnitāte (Arch. 18), I will avail myself of your kindness. ita mihi salvā rēpūblicā vobīscum perfruī liceat (Cat. iv. 11), so may I enjoy with you the state secure and prosperous.

auro heros potitur (Ov. Met. vii. 155), the hero takes the gold. fungi inani munere (Æn. vi. 885), to perform an idle service.

possession of the whole of Gaul.

a. Potior sometimes takes the Genitive, as always in the phrase potiri rērum, to get control or be master of affairs (§ 223. a): as,—tōtius Galliae sēsē potiri posse spērant (B. G. i. 3), they hope they can get

g. Ablative of Degree of Difference.

250. (RULE 50.) With comparatives and words-implying comparison the ablative is used to denote the Degree of Difference: as,—

quinque milibus passuum distat, it is five miles distant (by five miles). aliquot ante annis (Tusc. i. 4), several years before.

multo me vigilare acrius (Cat. i. 8), that I watch much more sharply (more sharply by much).

Remark. — This use is especially frequent with the ablatives quō...eō (hōc); quantō... tantō (cf. § 106.c): as, —

quō minus cupiditātis, eō plūs auctōritātis (Liv. xxiv. 28), the less greed, the more weight (by what the less, by that the more).

quanto erat gravior oppugnatio, tanto crebriores litterae mittebantur (B. G. v. 45), the severer the siege was, the oftener letters were sent.

Note. — To this construction are doubtless to be referred all cases of quo and eo with a comparative, even when they have ceased to be felt as degree of difference and approach the Ablative of Cause: as,—

ecque mē minus paenitet (N. D. i. 8), and for that reason I regret less, etc. (by so much the less I regret).

a. The Ablative of Comparison (§ 247) and the Ablative of Degree of Difference may be used together with the same adjective: as,—multō dīvitior Crassō, much richer than Crassus.

10. Ablative of Quality.

251. (RULE 51.) Quality is denoted by the Ablative with a Modifier (either an adjective or limiting genitive).

This is called the Descriptive Ablative or Ablative of Quality.

animo meliore sunt gladiātorēs (Cat. ii. 26), the gladiators are of a better mind.

quae cum esset cīvitās aequissimo iūre ac foedere (Arch. 6), as this was a city with perfectly equal constitutional rights.

mulierem eximiă pulchritudine (Verr. II. i, 64), a woman of extraordinary beauty.

Note. — The Ablative of Quality (like the Genitive of Quality) modifies a substantive by *describing* it. It is therefore equivalent to an adjective, and may be either attributive or predicate. In this it differs from other ablatives, which are equivalent to adverbs. Compare —

mulier pulchra, a beautiful woman.

mulier māgnā pulchritūdine, a woman of great beauty, with -

mulier pulchritūdine Trōiam dēlēvit, by her beauty a woman destroyed Troy.

mulier excellens pulchritudine (§ 253), a woman preëminent in beauty.

a. In expressions of quality the Genitive or the Ablative may often be used indifferently; but *physical* qualities are oftener denoted by the Ablative: as,—

capillo sunt promisso (B. G. v. 14), they have long hair.

II. Ablative of Price.

252. (Rule 52.) Price is expressed by the ablative:

agrum vēndidit sēstertiūm sex mīlibus, he sold the land for 6000 sesterces. Antōnius rēgna addīxit pecūniā (Phil. vii. 15), Antony sold thrones for money.

a. Certain adjectives of Quantity are used in the genitive to denote *indefinite value*. Such are māgnī, parvī, tantī, quantī, plūris, minōris: as.—

est mihi tantī (Cat. ii. 15), it is worth the price (it is of much). meā māgnī interest, it is of great consequence to me. illud parvī rēfert (Manil. 18), this is of small account.

Note. — These are really genitives of quality (§ 215. c).

b. The genitive of certain colorless nouns is used in the same way. Such are **mihili**, nothing; **āssis**, a farthing; **flocoi** (a lock of wool), a straw. Thus, —

non flocci facio (Att. xiii. 50), I care not a straw.

utinam ego istūc abs tē factum nihilī penderem (Ter. Eun. 94), oh! that I cared nothing for this being done by you!

c. With verbs of exchanging, either the thing taken or the thing given in exchange may be in the Ablative of Price. Such are: mūtāre, commūtāre, permūtāre, vertere. Thus,—

fidem suam et religionem pecunia commutare (Cluent. 129), to barter his faith and conscience for money.

vertere füneribus triumphös (Hor. Od. i. 35. 4), to change the triumph to the funeral train (exchange triumphs for funerals).

exsilium patriā sēde mūtāvit (Q. C. iii. 7), he exchanged his native land for exile (he took exile in exchange for his native land).

NOTE. — With verbs of exchanging cum is often used, perhaps with a different conception of the action: as, —

aries ... cum croceo mūtābit vellera lūto (Ecl. iv. 44), the ram shall change his fleece for [one dyed with] the yellow saffron.

d. With verbs of buying and selling the simple ablative of price must be used, except in the case of tantī, quantī, plūris, minōris: as,—

quanti eam ēmit? vīlī . . . quot minīs? quadrāgintā minīs (Pl. Epid. 51), what did he buy her for? Cheap. For how many minæ? Forty.

12. Ablative of Specification.

253. (RULE 53.) The Ablative of Specification denotes that in expect to which anything is or is done: as,—

virtute praecedunt (B. G. i. 1), they excel in courage.

claudus altero pede (Nep. Ages 8), lame of one foot.

sunt enim homines non re sed nomine (Off. i. 105), for they are men not in fact, but in name.

māior nātū, older; minor nātū, younger (cf. § 91. c).

înfîrmus mollisque nătūrā (Læl. 75), weak and yielding by nature.

homō meā sententiā prūdentissimus (Cæcin. 22), a man, in my opinion, very wise.

equitatu pulsi erant (B. G. vii. 68), they had been beaten in the cavalry fight.

NOTE. — To this head are to be referred many expressions where the ablative denotes that in accordance with which anything is or is done. But as the Romans had no such categories as we make, it is impossible to classify all uses of the ablative. Hence the ablative of specification is closely akin to that of manner, and to many ablatives developed from other fundamental ideas. Thus, —

meo iure, with perfect right; but, meo modo, in my fashion.

meā sententiā, in my opinion; but also more formally, ex meā sententiā.
[Here the sense is the same, but the first ablative is specification; the second, source.]

- qui vincit viribus (Læl. 55), who surpasses in strength. [Here it is impossible to tell whether viribus is the means of the superiority or that in respect to which one is superior.]
- a. The Supine in -\overline{u}, used chiefly with adjectives, is equivalent to an ablative of specification (cf. §§ 114. b, 303): as,—
 mīrābile dictū, marvellous to tell.

13. Ablative of Place.

- **254.** (RULE 57.) The ablative is used to denote the place where (usually with the preposition in, § 258. c).
- · a. The ablative of the *place where* is retained in many idiomatic expressions (cf. § 259. a) which have lost the idea of place: as,—pendēmus animīs (Tusc. i. 96), we are in suspense of mind (in our minds).
 - socius periculis võbīscum aderō (Jug. 85, 47), I will be present with you, a companion in dangers.
 - premit altum corde dolorem (Æn. i. 209), he keeps down the pain deep in his heart.
- 6. I. Several verbs are regularly followed by the ablative, originally of place. These are: acquiesco, delector, laetor, gaudeo, glorior, nitor, sto, maneo, fido (confido), consisto, contineor.

nominibus veterum gloriantur (Orat. 169), they glory in the names of the ancients. [Also, de divitiis, in virtute, circa rem, aliquid, gloriari.] spē nītī (Att. iii. 9), to rely on hope.

prūdentiā fīdēns (Off. i. 8), trusting in prudence.

2. (RULE 42.) The verbals fretus, contentus, and laetus take the ablative either of place or means as

fretus gratia Brūtī (Att. v. 21, 12), relying on the favor of Brutus. laetus praeda, rejoicing in the booty.

contentus sorte, content with his lot. [Possibly abl. of cause.]

REMARK.—The ablative with the above verbs sometimes takes the preposition in (and the ablative with them is probably locative): as,—

in quibus causa nītitur (Cæl. 25), on whom the case depends.

With several of these verbs the neuter accusative of pronouns is often found.

14. Ablative Absolute.

255. (RULE 54.) A noun or pronoun, with a participle, may be put in the ablative to define the *time* or *circumstances* of an action: as,—

nöndum hieme confecta (B. G. vi. 3), the winter not yet over.

- no vobis quidem omnibus re etiam tum probata (Cat. ii. 4), since at that time the facts were not yet proved even to all of you.
- a. An adjective, or a second noun, may take the place of the participle in the Ablative Absolute construction: as,
 - exiguā parte aestātis reliquā (B. G. iv. 20), when but a small part of the summer was left (a small part of the summer remaining).
 - M. Messālā et M. Pisone consulibus (id. i. 2), in the consulship of Messala and Piso (Marcus Messala and Marcus Piso being consuls).

 [The regular way of expressing dates, see § 259. e.]
- b. In later Latin a phrase or clause, used substantively, sometimes occurs as ablative absolute with a participle or an adjective: as,—

incertō quid peterent (Liv. xxviii. 36), as it was uncertain what they should aim at (it being uncertain, etc.).

- comperto vanam esse formidinem (Tac. Ann. i. 66), when it was found that the alarm was groundless.
- c. A participle or an adjective is sometimes used adverbially in the ablative absolute without a substantive: as,—

consulto et cogitato (Off. i. 27), on purpose and with reflection (the matter having been deliberated and thought on).

serēnō (Liv. xxxi. 12), under a clear sky (it [being] clear).

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- d. The Ablative Absolute in its developed form often takes the place of a Subordinate Clause, the noun being equivalent to a subject, and the other word to the predicate. So may be replaced—
 - 1. Temporal clauses (§§ 322 ff.): as, —
 - patre interfectō, [his] father having been killed. [This corresponds to cum pater interfectus esset, when his father had been killed.]
 - recentibus sceleris ēius vestīgiīs (Q. C. vii. I, I), while the traces of the crime were fresh. [Cf. dum recentia sunt vestīgia.]
 - 2. Causal clauses (§ 321): as, —
 - at eî qui Alesiae obsidēbantur praeteritā diē quā auxilia suōrum exspectāverant, consumpto omni frumento, concilio coācto consultābant (B. G. vii. 77), but those who were under siege at Alesia since the time, etc., had expired, and their grain had been exhausted, calling a council (see 5 below), consulted together. [Cf. cum dies praeteriisset, etc.]
 - Dārēus, dēspērātā pāce, ad reparandās vīrēs intendit animum (Q. C. iv. 6, 1), Darius, since he despaired of peace, devoted his energies to recruiting his forces. [Cf. cum pācem dēspērāret.]
 - 3. Concessive clauses (§ 313): as,—
 - at eō repügnante fīēbat (cōnsul), immō vērō eō fīēbat magis (Milo 34), but though he (Clodius) opposed, he (Milo) was likely to be elected consul; nay, rather, etc.
 - 4. Conditional clauses (§ 304): as, —
 - occurrebat ei, mancam et debilem praeturam futuram suam, consule Milone (Milo 25), it occurred to him that his prætorship would be maimed and feeble if Milo were consul. [si Milo consul esset.]
 - quā (regione) subāctā licēbit dēcurrere in illud mare (Q. C. ix. 3, 13), if this region is subdued, we shall be free to run down into that sea. quā quidem dētrāctā (Arch. 28), if this be taken away.
 - 5. Clauses of accompanying circumstance: as, -
 - ego haec ā Chrysogonō meā sponte, remoto Sex. Roscio, quaerō (Rosc. Am. 130), of my own accord, without reference to Sextus Roscius (S. R. being put aside), I ask these questions of Chrysogonus.
 - nec imperante nec sciente nec praesente dominō (Milo 29), without their master's giving orders, or knowing it or being present.
- NOTE.—As the English case absolute (the nominative) is far less common than the ablative absolute in Latin, a change of form is generally required in translation. Thus the present participle is oftenest to be ren-

dered by a relative clause with when or while; and the perfect passive participle by the perfect active participle in English. These changes may be seen in the following example:—

"At illī, intermīssō spatiō, imprūdentibus nostrīs, atque occupātīs in mūnītiōne castrōrum, subitō sē ex silvīs ēiēcērunt; impetūque in eōs factō, quī erant in statiōne prō castrīs collocātī, ācriter pūgnāvērunt; duābusque mīssīs subsidiō cohortibus ā Caesare, cum hae (perexiguō intermīssō locī spatiō inter sē) cōnstitissent, novō genere pūgnae perterritīs nostrīs, per mediōs audācissimē perrūpērunt, sēque inde incolumēs recēpērunt."—CÆSAR, B. G. v. 15.

"But they, having paused a space, while our men were unaware and busied in fortifying the camp, suddenly threw themselves out of the woods, then making an attack upon those who were on guard in front of the camp, they fought fiercely, and though two cohorts had been sent by Cæsar as reinforcements, after these had taken their position (leaving very little space of ground between them) as our men were alarmed by the strange kind of fighting, they dashed most daringly through the midst of them, and got off safe."

VI. TIME AND PLACE.

. I. Time.

256. (RULE 55.) Time when, or within which, is expressed by the Ablative; time how long by the Accusative: as,—

I. Ablative: -

constitută die, on the appointed day; primă luce, at daybreak. quotă horă, at what o'clock? tertia vigiliă, in the third watch. tribus proxumis annis (Jug. 11), within the last three years.

2. Accusative: -

dies continuos triginta, for thirty days together. cum triduum iter fecisset (B. G. ii. 16), when he had marched three days.

a. The Ablative of time within which sometimes takes in, and the Accusative of time how long, per for greater precision: as,—

in diēbus proximīs decem (Sall.), within the next ten days. in brevī spatio (Ov. Met. i. 411), within a brief space (of time). lūdī per decem diēs (Cat. iii. 20), games for ten days.

b. Duration of time is occasionally expressed by the Ablative: as, — militēs quinque horis proclium sustinuerant (B. C. i. 47), the men had sustained the fight five hours.

2. Space.

257. (Rule 37.) Extent of space is expressed by the Accusative: as,—

fossas quindecim pedes latas (B. G. vii. 72), trenches fifteen feet broad. in omnī vīta sua quemque a rēcta conscientia transversum unguem non oportet discedere (quoted in Att. xiii. 20), in all one's life, one should not depart a nail's breadth from straightforward conscience.

a. Measure is often expressed by the Genitive of Quality (\S 215. b): as,—

vallo pedum duodecim (B. G. ii. 30), in a rampart of twelve feet (in height).

b. Distance when considered as extent of space is expressed by the Accusative; when considered as degree of difference, by the Ablative (§ 250): as,—

quinque dierum iter abest (Liv. xxx. 29), it is distant five days' march. trīgintā mīlibus passuum înfrā eum locum (B. G. vi. 35), thirty miles below that place (below by thirty miles).

3. Place from Which and End of Motion.

- 258. (RULE 56.) The place from which is denoted by the Ablative with ab, dē, or ex; the place to which (the End of Motion) by the Accusative with ad or in: as,—
 - 1. Place from which: ---
 - ā septentrione, from the north.
 - de provincia decedere, to come away from one's province.
 - de monte, down from the mountain.
 - negötiator ex Africa (Verr. II. i, 14), a merchant from Africa.
 - ex Britanniā obsidēs mīsērunt (B. G. iv. 38), they sent hostages from Britain.
 - Mosa profluit ex monte Vosego (id. iv. 10), the Meuse (flows from) rises in the Vosges mountains.
 - 2. Place to which: -
 - ad fines Hyrcaniae penetrat (Q. C. vi. 4, 2), he penetrates to the borders of Hyrcania.
 - in Africam navigavit, he sailed to Africa.
 - in Italiam profectus, gone to Italy.
 - lēgātum in Treverōs mīttit (B. G. iii. 11), he sends his lieutenant into the [country of the] Treveri.

NOTE 1. — In poetry the end of motion is often expressed by the Dative (§ 225. b. 3): as, —

it clamor caelo (Æn. v. 451), a shout goes up to the sky.

a. (Rule 56.) The names of towns or small islands from which, as also domus and rus, are put in the Ablative without a preposition: as,—

Roma profectus, having set out from Rome. rure reversus, having returned from the country.

Romā abesse, to be absent from Rome.

domō abīre, to leave home.

NOTE I. — With names of towns, etc., ab is often used, commonly to denote from the vicinity of: as,—

erat ā Gergoviā dēspectus in castra (B. G. vii. 45), there was from about G. a view into the camp.

profectī ā domō (Liv. xl. 33), setting out from home.

NOTE 2.—The ablative without a preposition is used to denote the place from which in certain idiomatic expressions: as,—

cēssisset patriā (Mil. 68), he would have left his country. patriā pellere, to drive out of the country.

manū mīttere, to emancipate (let go from the hand).

Note 3.— The poets often omit the preposition where it would be required in prose: as,—

mānīs Acheronte remīssos (Æn. v. 99), the spirits returned from Acheron.

b. (RULE 56.) The names of towns or small islands to which, as also domus and rus, are put in the Accusative without a preposition:

Romam rediit, he returned to Rome.

Dēlō Rhodum nāvigāre, to sail from Deles to Rhodes.

rūs ībo, I shall go into the country.

domum iit, he went home. [So, suas domos abire, to go to their homes.]

NOTE 1. — In this use domum may be modified by a possessive pronoun or a genitive. When otherwise modified, domum requires the preposition in. Thus, —

domum rēgis (Deiot. 17), to the king's house. [But also in M. Laecae domum (Cat. i. 8), to M. Laca's house.] But —

in domum magnam venīre, to come into a large house.

NOTE 2. — With the names of towns, etc., ad may be used in the sense of towards, to the neighborhood of: as, —

ad Alesiam proficiscuntur (B. G. vii. 76), they set out for Alesia.
 ad Alesiam perveniunt (id. vii. 79), they arrive at Alesia (come through to).
 ad Athēnās nāvigāre, to set sail for Athens (landing in the harbor).

NOTE 3. — The general words, urbs, oppidum, insuls, require a preposition in either construction (to which or from which): as, ad urbem, ab urbe, ad urbem Romam, Romam ad urbem, ex urbe Roma.

Note 4. — Two or more nouns are sometimes expressed after one verb as limits of motion (see § 259. h).

NOTE 5.—The poets often omit the preposition with any noun: as,— Italiam Lāvīniaque vēnit lītora (Æn. i. 2), he came to Italy and the Lavinian shores.

finis Italos mittere (id. iii. 440), you shall be allowed to reach the Italian boundaries.

REMARK. — The preposition is omitted with the supine in -um (§ 302) and in the following old phrases: —

exsequiās îre, to go to the funeral.

pessum îre, to go to ruin.

vēnum dare, to sell (give to sale).

vēnum îre, to be sold (go to sale).

[Hence vēnīre.]

forās (used as adverb), out: as, forās ēgredī, to go out of doors.

4. The Place Where.

- c. (Rule 57.) I. The place where is denoted by the Ablative with the preposition in (Locative Ablative): as,—in hāc urbe vītam dēgit, he passed his life in this city.

 sī in Galliā remanērent (B. G. iv. 8), if they should stay in Gaul. oppidum in īnsulā positum (id. vii. 58), a town situated on an island.
- 2. (RULE 57.) But names of towns and small islands are put in the Locative Case. (See 36. c, 40. a, and 62.)

Romae, at Rome (Roma). Athenis, at Athens (Athenae).

REMARK. — Large islands, and all places when thought of as a territory and not as a locality, are treated like names of countries: as, —

in Sicilia, in Sicily.

in Ithacā leporēs illātī moriuntur (Plin. H. N.), in Ithaca hares when carried there die. [Ulysses lived at Ithaca, would require Ithacae.]

NOTE 1. — With all names of places AT, meaning near (not in), is expressed by ad or apud with the Accusative. In the neighborhood of may be expressed by circa with the Accusative; among, by apud with the Accusative. Thus, —

pugna ad Cannas, the fight at Canna.

conchās ad Cāiētam legunt (De Or. ii. 22), at Caieta (along the shore). ad (apud) īnferōs, in the world below (near or among those below). apud Graecōs, among the Greeks. apud mē, at my house.

NOTE 2.—In citing an author, apud is regularly used; in citing a particular work, in. Thus,—

apud Xenophontem, in Xenophon. But—
in Xenophontis Oeconomico, in Xenophon's Œconomicus.

d. (RULE 57.) The Locative Case is also preserved in the following common nouns:—

domi (rarely domui), at home.

belli, militiae (in contrast to domi), abroad, in military service.

humi, on the ground.

rūrī, in the country.

foris, out-of-doors.

terra marique, by land and sea.

These are used like names of towns, without a preposition. So, also.—

heri(-e), yesterday.

vesperi (e), in the evening.

infēlicī arborī (Liv. i. 26), on the ill-omened tree.

e. The locative **domi** may be modified by a possessive adjective or a limiting genitive; but when it would be otherwise modified some other construction is used instead of the Locative. Thus, —

domī Caesaris, at Cæsar's house.

domī suae vel aliēnae, at his own or another's house. But—
in Mārcī Crassī castissimā domō (Cæl. 9), in the chaste home of Marcus
Crassus. [Cf. ex Anniānā Milōnis domō, § 184. d.]

- f. The place where is denoted by the Ablative without a preposition in several constructions:—
 - 1. Regularly in many indefinite words, such as loco, parte: as,—quibus loco positis (De Or. iii. 153), when these are set in position. qua parte victi erant (Cic.), on the side where they were beaten. But—exercitum castris continuit (B. G. i. 48), he kept his army in camp. [Here the construction is influenced by means.]
- 2. Frequently with nouns which are qualified by adjectives (regularly when tōtus is used): as,—

mediā urbe (Liv. i. 33), in the middle of the city. tōtā Siciliā (Verr. iv. 51), throughout Sicily (in the whole of Sicily). So—tōtā Tarracīnā (De Or. ii. 240), in all Tarracīna (cf. c. 2. Rem.). 3. Freely in poetry: as, -

lītore curvō (Æn. iii. 16), on the winding shore.

antro seclusa relinquit (id. iii. 446), she leaves them shut up in the cave.

Epīrō, Hesperiā (id. iii. 503), in Epirus, in Hesperia.

g. The way by which is expressed by the ablative without a preposition: as, —

viā breviōre equitēs praemīsī (Fam. x. 9), I sent forward the cavalry by a shorter road.

Aegaeō marī trāiēcit (Liv. xxxvii. 14), he crossed by way of the Ægean Sea. provehimur pelagō (Æn. iii. 506), we sail forth over the sea.

5. Special Uses of Time and Place.

259. The following special uses must be observed:

a. Many expressions have in Latin the construction of *time when*, where in English the main idea is rather of place: as,—

pugnā Cannēnsi (or apud Cannās), in the fight at Canna.

lūdīs Romānīs, at the Roman games.

omnibus Gallicis bellis, in all the Gallic wars.

b. In many idiomatic expressions of time, the accusative with ad, in, or sub is used. Such are the following:—

supplicătio decreta est in Kalendas Ianuarias, a thanksgiving was voted for the 1st of January.

convenerunt ad diem, they assembled at the [appointed] day.

ad vesperum, till evening; sub vesperum, towards evening.

sub idem tempus, about the same time.

sub noctem, at night-fall.

c. Time during which or within which may be expressed by the ablative of a noun in the singular, with an ordinal numeral: as,—

quinto die, within [just] four days (lit., on the fifth day). [The Romans counted both ends, see § 376. d.]

regnat iam sextum annum, he has reigned going on six years (he is reigning now the sixth year).

But also, - regnāvit iam sex annos, he has already reigned for six years.

d. Difference of time before or after anything is variously expressed: as, —

post (ante) trēs annōs, post tertium annum, trēs post annōs, tertium post annum, tribus post annīs, tertiō post annō (§ 250), three years after.

tribus annīs (tertio anno) post exsilium (postquam ēiectus est,) three years after his exile.

٢

his tribus proximis annis, within the last three years. paucis annis, a few years hence.

abhinc annös tres (tribus annis), ante hos tres annos, three years ago. triennium est cum (tres anni sunt cum), it is three years since. octavo mense quam (see § 262. note 2), the eighth month after.

e. In Dates the phrase ante diem (a. d.) with an ordinal, or the ordinal alone, is followed by an accusative, like a preposition; and the phrase itself may also be governed by a preposition.

The year is expressed by the names of the consuls in the ablative absolute, often without a conjunction (§ 255. a): as,—

- is dies erat a. d. quintum Kalendas Aprilis L. Pisone A. Gabinio consulibus (B. G. i. 6), that day was the 5th before the calends of April (March 28), in the consulship of Piso and Gabinius.
- in a. d. v. Kal. Nov. (Cat. i. 7), to the 5th day before the calends of November (Oct. 28).
- xv. Kal. Sextīlīs, the 15th day before the calends of August (July 18).

 [Full form: quinto decimo die ante Kalendas.]
- f. For AT, meaning near (not in), see § 258. c. note 1.
- g. When motion to a place is implied in English, though not expressed, the accusative with or without a preposition must be used in Latin: as.—

coniūrātī in cūriam convēnērunt, the conspirators met in the Senate-house (came together into the Senate-house),

concilium domum suam convocavit, he called a council at his own house.

- h. When two or more names of place follow a verb of motion, each must be under its own construction. Thus,
 - quadriduo quo haec gesta sunt res ad Chrysogonum in castra L. Sullae Volaterras defertur (Rosc. Am. 20), within four days after this was done, the matter was reported TO Chrysogonus IN Sulla's camp AT Volaterra.

VII. USE OF PREPOSITIONS.

- 260. Some Prepositions are used with the Accusative, some with the Ablative, and a few with both.
- a. Verbs of *placing*, though implying motion, take the construction of the place in which.

Such are: pono and its compounds (except impono), loco, colloco, statuo, constituo, etc.

statuitur eques Romanus in Aproni convivio (Verr. iii. 62), a Roman knight is brought into a banquet of Apronius.

- sī in ūno Pompēio omnia ponerētis (Man. 59), if you made everything depend on Pompey alone.
- b. Position is frequently expressed by the Ablative with ab (rarely ex), properly meaning from: as,—

ā tergō, in the rear.

ā sinistrā, on the left hand. [Cf. hinc, on this side.]
māgnā ex parte, in a great degree (from, i.e. in, a great part).

c. Super in the sense of concerning takes the Ablative; in all other senses it takes the Accusative: as,—

hāc super rē (Cic.), concerning this thing.

sed hac re super nimis (Att. x. 8, 10), but more than enough on that point. super culmina tecti (Æn. ii. 695), above the house-top.

super laterēs coria indūcuntur (R. C. ii. 10), hides are drawn over the bricks.

super Numidiam (Jug. 19), beyond Numidia.

super terrae tumulum (Legg. ii. 66), on the mound of earth.

Note. — The ablative is used in poetry with super in other senses:

līgna super focō largē repōnēns (Hor. Od. i. 9. 5), piling logs generously on the fire.

nocte super mediā (Æn. ix. 61), after midnight.

d. Subter takes the Accusative, except sometimes in poetry. Thus, —

subter togam (Liv.), under his mantle. But—subter litore (Catull.), below the shore.

e. Tenus (which follows its noun) regularly takes the Ablative, but sometimes the Genitive (§ 223. e). Thus,—

Taurō tenus (Deiot. 36), as far as Taurus.

capulo tenus (Æn. ii. 553), up to the hilt.

Corcyrae tenus (Liv. xxvi. 24), as far as Corcyra.

- 261. Many words may be construed either as Prepositions or as Adverbs: thus,—
- a. The adverbs pridie, postridie, propius, proxime, usque also (less frequently) the adjectives propior and proximus may be followed by the Accusative (cf. §§ 207. b, 234. e): as, —

prīdiē Nonās Iūniās (Cic.), the day before the Nones of June (June 4). ipse propior montem suos collocat (Jug. 49), he stations his men nearer the hill.

proximē Pompēium sedēbam (Att. 1. 14), I sat next to Pompey. [Cf. proximus Pompēium sedēbam.]

pars īnsulae quae est propius sõlis occāsum (B. G. iv. 28), the part of the island which is nearer the west (sunset).

terminos usque Libyae (Just.), to the bounds of Libya.

NOTE. — Pridië and postridië take also the Genitive (§ 223. e. note 2). Propior, propius, proximus, and proximë take also the Dative, or the Ablative with ab. Usque is commonly followed by ad. Thus,—

propius Tiberi (Nep.), nearer the Tiber. propius ab urbe (Plin.), nearer the city. usque ad mare, to the sea.

b. The adverbs palam, procul, simul, may be used as prepositions and take the Ablative (so, perhaps, intus): as,—

rem crēditorī palam populo solvit (Liv. vi. 14), he paid the debt in the presence of the people.

haud procul castris in modum municipii exstructa (Tac. H. iv. 22), not far from the camp, built up like a town.

simul nobis habitat barbarus (Ov. Tr. v. 10. 29), close among us dwells the barbarian.

Note. — But simul regularly takes cum; procul is usually followed by ab in classic use; and palam as a preposition is comparatively late. Thus, —

procul a mari, far from the sea.

nobiscum simul, at the same time with ourselves.

c. The adverb clam is found with the Accusative or Ablative, rarely with the Genitive or Dative: as, —

clam mätrem suam (Plaut.), unknown to his mother.

clam mihi (id.), in secret from me.

clam patris (id.), without his father's knowledge.

clam vobis (B. C. ii. 32), without your knowledge.

- d. Prepositions often retain their original meaning as adverbs. So, especially,—
 - 1. Ante and post in relations of time: as, -

quae paulo ante praecepta dedimus (Cic.), a little while ago, etc. post tribus diebus, three days after (cf. § 259. d).

2. Adversus, contra, circiter, prope: as, -

adversus resistere, to hold out in opposition.

Aeolus haec contrā, thus Æolus in reply.

3. In general those ending in -a: as, -

forte fuit iūxtā tumulus, there happened to be a mound close by.

262. Some prepositions or adverbs which imply Comparison are followed, like comparatives, by quam, either attached to them or separated by several words, or even clauses.

neque ante dimisit eum quam fidem dedit (Liv. xxxix. 10), nor did he let him go until he gave a pledge.

post diem tertium quam dixerat (Mil. 44), the third day after he said it.

Note 1.—Such words are ante, prius, post, pridië, postridië; also magis and prae in compounds: as,—

Catō ipse iam servīre quam pūgnāre māvult (Att. vii. 15), Cato himself by this time would rather be a slave than fight.

NOTE 2. — The ablative of time (§ 256) is sometimes followed by quam in the same way: as, —

octāvo mēnse quam (Liv. xxi. 15), within eight months after, etc.

268. For a or ab with the Ablative of Agent, see § 246.

Note. — The following prepositions sometimes follow their nouns: ad, citrā, circā, contrā, dē, ē (ex), inter, iūxtā, penes, propter, ūltrā, tenus (regularly), and occasionally others: as,—

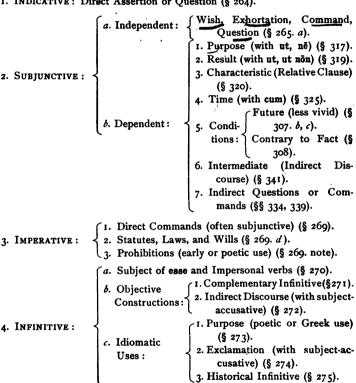
[usus] quem penes arbitrium est et ius et norma loquendi (Hor. A. P. 72), custom, under whose control is the choice, right, and rule of speech. cuius a me corpus est crematum, quod contra decuit ab illo meum (C. M. 84), whose body I burned [on the funeral pile], while on the contrary (lit. contrary to which) mine should have been burned by him.

3. SYNTAX OF THE VERB.

I. MOODS AND TENSES.

The proper verbal constructions may be thus classified: —

I. INDICATIVE: Direct Assertion or Question (§ 264).



MOODS.

I. THE INDICATIVE.

264. The Indicative is the mood of direct assertions or questions when there is no modification of the verbal idea except that of time.

a. The Tenses of the Indicative generally denote time, as present, past, or future, with reference to the speaker (§§ 276 ff.).

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b. The Indicative is sometimes used where the English idiom would suggest the Subjunctive: as, —

longum est, it would be tedious [if, etc.]. satius erat, it would have been better [if, etc.]. persequī possum, I might follow up [in detail].

- c. The Future is sometimes used for the Imperative (§ 269. f).
- d. The Indicative is used in some kinds of conditions (§§ 306, 308).

II. THE SUBJUNCTIVE.

265. The Subjunctive in general expresses the verbal idea with some modification 1 such as is expressed in English by auxiliaries, by the infinitive, or by the rare subjunctive (§ 112. b).

The uses of the subjunctive are independent or dependent.

- a. The Subjunctive is used independently to express -
 - (1) An Exhortation, Concession, or Command (Hortatory, § 260).
 - (2) A Wish (Optative, § 267).
 - (3) A Question of Doubt or Deliberation (Deliberative, § 268).
- b. The Subjunctive is used in dependent clauses to express—
 - (I) Purpose (Final, § 317).
 - (2) Result (Consecutive, § 319).
 - (3) Characteristic (§ 320).
 - (4) Time (Temporal, § 325).
 - (5) Indirect Ouestien (§ 334).
 - (6) Condition: future or contrary to fact (§§ 307. b, c, 308).
- c. The subjunctive is also used with Particles of Comparison (§ 312), and in subordinate clauses in the Indirect Discourse (§ 336).
- ¹ These modifications are of various kinds, each of which had its own special development. The subjunctive in Latin has also many idiomatic uses (see clauses of Result and Time), where the English does not modify the verbal idea at all, but expresses it directly; but in these cases the Latin merely takes a different view of the action, and has developed its construction differently from the English.

- 1. Hortatory Subjunctive.
- 266. (Rule 68.) The Hortatory Subjunctive is used to express an exhortation, a command, a concession, or a condition.
 - hos latrones interficiamus (B. G. vii. 38), let us kill these robbers.
 - caveant intemperantiam, meminerint verecundiae (Off. i. 122), let them shun excess and cherish modesty.
- NOTE 1.—The simple subjunctive of exhortation and command takes the present tense, less commonly the perfect. The Perfect represents an action as completed in future time, but in most cases is equivalent to the Present. Other tenses are used in some varieties of this construction (see ϵ , note, and ϵ).
 - REMARK. The negative particle with the hortatory subjunctive is nē.
- a. The Second Person is used only of an *indefinite subject*, except in prohibition, in early Latin, and in poetry (cf. § 269. b). Thus,
 - iniūriās fortūnae, quās ferre nequeās, dēfugiendō relinquās (Tusc. v. 118), the wrongs of fortune, which you cannot bear, leave behind by flight. exoriāre aliquis ultor (Æn. iv. 625), rise, some avenger.
 - nē conferas culpam in mē (Ter. Eun. 388), don't lay the blame on me.
- b. In Prohibitions addressed to a definite person, the perfect is more common than the present (cf. § 269. a): as,
 - hoc facito : hoc ne feceris (Div. ii. 127), thou shalt do this; thou shalt not do that.
 - tū nē quaesieris (Hor.), do not inquire.
 - nec mihi illud dixeris (Fin. i. 25), and do not say that to me.
- c. The hortatory subjunctive may express a <u>Concession</u> sometimes with ut, no, quamvia quamblet, or similar words (cf. § 313. a): as,
 - fuerit alis: tibi quando esse coepit (Verr. II. i, 37), suppose he was [so] to others, when did he begin to be to you?
 - ut rationem Plato nullam afferret (Tusc. i. 49), though Plato adduced no reasons.
 - nēmō is unquam fuit: nē fuerit (Or. 101), there never was such a one [you will say]: granted (let there not have been).
 - quamvis scelerati illi fuissent (De Or. i. 230), however guilty they might have been.

Note. — In this use the Present refers to future or indefinite time, the Imperfect to present or past time (the concession being impliedly untrue), the Perfect to past or completed future time, the Pluperfect to completed action in past time (the concession being usually untrue).

- d. The hortatory subjunctive may denote a Proviso or Con-DITION (see §§ 310. b, 314).
- e. The Imperfect and Pluperfect of the hortatory subjunctive denote an UNFULFILLED OBLIGATION in past time: as,—
- morerētur, inquiēs (Rab. Post. 28), he should have died, you will say. potius diceret (Off. iii. 88), he should rather have said.

 nē poposcissēs (Att. ii. 1, 3), you should not have asked.

2. Optative Subjunctive.

267. (RULE 69.) The Subjunctive is used to express a Wish. The present tense denotes the wish as possible, the imperfect as unaccomplished in present time, the pluperfect as unaccomplished in past time. Thus,—

ita vivam (Att. v. 15), so may I live (as true as I live).

nē vīvam sī sciō (id. iv. 16, 8), I wish I may not live if I know.

dī tē perduint (Deiot. 21), the gods confound thee!

valeant, valeant, cīvēs meī; valeant, sint incolumēs (Mil. 93), farewell [he says], my fellow-citizens; may they be secure from harm.

di facerent sine patre forem (Ov. Met. viii. 72), would that the gods allowed me to be without a father (but they do not)!

REMARK. - The negative particle with the optative subjunctive is nē.

a. The Perfect in this use is antiquated: as, —

male dī tibi faxint (Plaut. Curc. 131), may the gods do thee a mischief. quod ōmen dī āverterint (Phil. xii. 14, in a religious formula), and may the gods avert this omen.

b. The Optative Subjunctive is often preceded by the particles util (ut), utinam, ō sī: as, —

ut pereat positum robīgine tēlum (Hor. Sat. ii. 1, 43), may the weapon unused perish with rust.

falsus utinam vātēs sim (Liv. xxi. 10), I wish I may be a false prophet. utinam P. Clōdius vīveret (Mil. 103), would that Clodius were now alive. ō sī angulus ille accēdat (Hor. Sat. ii. 6. 8), oh! if that corner might only be added.

NOTE 1.—The subjunctive with uti, etc., was originally deliberative, meaning how may I, etc. (§ 268). The subjunctive with ō sī (poetical) is a protasis (§ 312. note); sī alone is sometimes used to express a wish in the same way: as,—

sī nunc sē nobīs ille aureus rāmus ostendat (Æn. vi. 187), if now that golden branch would only show itself to us!

- c. Velim and vellem, and their compounds, with a subjunctive or infinitive, are often equivalent to an optative subjunctive: as,
 - de Menedemo vellem verum fuisset, de regina velim verum sit (Att. xv. 4, 4), about Menedemus I wish it had been true; about the queen I hope it may be.

nöllem accidisset tempus (Fam. iii. 10, 2), I wish the time never had come.

3. Deliberative Subjunctive.

268. (RULE 70.) The Subjunctive is used in questions implying (1) doubt, indignation, or (2) an impossibility of the thing being done: as,—

quid hōc homine faciās? quod supplicium dīgnum libīdinī ēius inveniās (Verr. ii. 40), what are you to do with this man? what fit penalty can you devise for his wantonness?

an ego non venirem (Phil. ii. 3), what, should I not have come?
mihi umquam bonorum praesidium detuturum putärem (Mil. 94), could
I think that the defence of good men would ever fail me?
quis enim celaverit ignem (Ov. Her. xv. 7), who could conceal the flame?

REMARK. — This use is apparently derived from the Hortatory Subjunctive: quid faciāmus? — faciāmus [aliquid], quid? let us do — what? Once established, it was readily transferred to the past: quid faciam? what AM I to do? quid facerem? what WAS I to do? Questions implying impossibility, however, cannot be distinguished from Apodosis.

Note. — The Deliberative Subjunctive is sometimes called Dubitative.

III. THE IMPERATIVE.

269. The Imperative is used in Commands and Entreaties: as,—

consulte vobis, prospicite patriae, conservate vos (Cat. iv. 3), have a care for yourselves, guard the country, preserve yourselves. dic Marce Tulli sententiam, Marcus Tullius, state your opinion.

NOTE. — In Negative Commands (prohibitions) the Present Imperative with ne is used by early writers and the poets: as, —

nē timē (Plaut. Curc. 520), don't be afraid. nimium nē crēde colorī (Ecl. ii. 17), trust not too much to complexion. equō nē crēdite (Æn. ii. 48), trust not the horse.

- a. (RULE 71.) Prohibition is regularly expressed in classic prose:—
 - 1. By **nē** with the second person of the Perfect Subjunctive; as, nē territus fueris (Tac. H. i. 16), don't be alarmed.
 - 2. By noli with the infinitive: as, -

noli putare (Fam. xiv. 2), do not suppose (be unwilling to suppose).

Note. — The poets frequently use instead of noll other words of similar meaning (cf. § 273, c): as,—

parce piās scelerāre manūs (Æn. iii. 42), forbear to defile your pious hands.

3. By cave with or without ne (colloquially fac ne) with the Present or Perfect Subjunctive (§ 266. b): as,—

cave putēs (Att. vii. 20), don'hthink.

cave dixeris, don't say so.

fac ne quid aliud cures (Fam. xvi. 11), see that you attend to nothing else.

Note. — Other negatives sometimes take the place of $n\bar{e}$: as,— $n\bar{o}n$ dubitāveris (Sen. Q. N. i. 3, 3), you must not doubt. nihil īgnōveris (Mur. 65), grant no pardon (pardon nothing).

b. General Prohibitions addressed to no definite person are regularly expressed by the Present Subjunctive with $n\bar{e}$ (cf. c, below): as,—

denique isto bono utare dum adsit: cum absit no requiras (C. M. 33), in short, use this good while present; when wanting, do not regret it.

Note. — The poets and early writers sometimes use the Present Subjunctive with nē in prohibitions not general: as, —

molestus ne sīs (Plaut. Most. 771), don't be troublesome. ne sīs patruus mihi (Hor. Sat. ii. 3. 88), don't be a [harsh] uncle to me.

- c. The third person of the Imperative is antiquated or poetic: iūsta imperia suntō, eīsque cīvēs modestē pārentō (Leg. iii. 6), let there be lawful authorities, and let the citizens strictly obey them.
- ¹ In prohibitions the Subjunctive with nē is hortatory; that with cave is an object clause (originally hortatory, cf. § 331. f. Rem.).

NOTE. — In prose the Hortatory Subjunctive is commonly used instead (§ 266): as, —

haec igitur lex in amīcitiā sanciātur (Læl. 40), let this law be laid down in case of friendship.

- d. The Future Imperative is used in commands, etc., where there is a distinct reference to future time: viz.,—
- 1. In connection with a condition precedent (as a future, a future perfect, or an imperative). Thus,—

Phyllida mītte mihī, meus est nātālis, Iollā; cum faciam vitulā profrūgibus ipse venītō (Ecl. iii. 76), send Phyllis to me, it is my birthday, Iollas; when I sacrifice a heifer for the harvest, come yourself. dīc quibus in terrīs, etc., et Phyllida solus habētō (id. iii. 107), tell in what lands, etc., and have Phyllis for yourself.

2. With adverbs or other expressions of Time: as, -

crās petito, dabitur (Pl. Merc. 770), ask to-morrow [and] it shall be given.

3. In general directions, as Precepts, Statutes, and Wills: as, —

cum valētūdinī consulueris, tum consulito nāvigātionī (Fam xvi. 4), when you have attended to your health, then look to your sailing.

Boreā flante, nē arātō, sēmen nē iacitō (Plin. H. N. xviii. 77), when the north wind blows, plough not, nor sow your seed.

e. The verbs soio, memini, and habeo (in the sense of consider), regularly use the Future Imperative instead of the Present: as,—

filiolo me auctum scīto (Att. i. 2), learn that I am blessed with a little boy. sīc habēto, mī Tiro (Fam. xvi. 4), so understand it, my good Tiro.

de palla memento, amabo (Pl. Asin. 939), remember, dear, about the gown.

f. The Future Indicative is sometimes used for the Imperative; and quin (why not?) with the Present Indicative may have the force of a command: as,—

sī quid acciderit novī, faciēs ut sciam (Fam. xiv. 8), you will let me know if anything new happens.

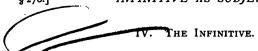
quin accipis (Ter. Heaut. 832)? here, take it (why not take it?).

g. Instead of the simple Imperative, cūrā, fac, or velim, followed by the Subjunctive with or without ut is often used, especially in colloquial language: as,—

cūrā ut Romae sīs (Att. i. 2), take care to be at Rome.

fac ut valētūdinem cūrēs (Fam. xiv. 17), see that you take care of your health. [Cf. rūs eō. fac, amābō (Ter. Eun. 533), I'm going into the country. Do, please.]

domī adsītis facite (id. 506), be at home, do.



r. Infinitive as Subject, etc.

270. (RULE 58.) The Infinitive, with or without a subject-accusative, may be used with est and similar verbs

- (1) as the Subject, (2) in Apposition with the subject, or
- (3) as a Predicate Nominative. Thus,
 - 1. Subject: as,—

dolere malum est (Fin. v. 84), to suffer pain is an evil.

pulchrum est benefacere rei publicae (Sall. Cat. 3), it is a noble thing to benefit the state.

motos praestat componere fluctus (An. i. 135), it is better to calm the troubled waves.

2. In Apposition with the Subject: as, -

Proinde quasi iniuriam facere id demum esset imperio uti (Sall. Cat. 12),

just as if this,—to commit injustice,—were to use power. [Here
facere is in apposition with id.]

3. Predicate Nominative: as, ---

id est convenienter nātūrae vīvere (Fin. iv. 41), that is to live in conformity with nature. [Cf. fiti in the last example.]

NOTE I. — An infinitive may also be used as Direct Object in connection with a Predicate Accusative, or as Appositive with such Direct Object;: as, —

istuc ipsum non esse cum fueris miserrimum puto (Tusc. i. 12), for I think this very thing most wretched, not to be when one has been.

NOTE 2. — An Appositive or Predicate noun used with an infinitive in any of these constructions is put in the Accusative, whether the infinitive has a subject expressed or not. Thus, —

non esse cupidum pecunia (Parad. 51), to be free from desires (not to be desirous) is money in hand.

a. The infinitive as subject is not common except with est and similar verbs, but is occasionally used with verbs apparently more active in meaning: as,—

quos omnis eadem cupere, eadem odisse, eadem metuere in unum coegit (Jug. 31, 10), all of whom the fact of desiring, hating, and fearing the same things has united into one.

ingenuās didicisse fidēliter artēs ēmollit morēs (Ov. ex P. ii. 9. 48), faithfully to have learned liberal arts softens the manners.

posse loqui ēripitur (Ov. M. ii. 483), the power of speech is taken away.

b. The infinitive is used with many impersonal verbs and expressions, partly as subject and partly as complementary infinitive (§ 271).

Such are libet, licet, oportet, decet, placet, visum est, pudet, piget, necesse est, opus est, etc.

id prīmum in poētīs cernī licet (De Or. iii. 27), this may be seen first in poets.

reperiëbat quid dici opus esset (Brut. 215), he found what needed to be

neque me vixisse paenitet (C. M. 84), I do not feel sorry to have lived.

NOTE 1. — These are generally not real cases of the infinitive used as subject, but they approach that construction.

c. Rarely the infinitive is used exactly like the accusative of a noun: as,—

beate vivere alii in alio, vos in voluptate ponitis (Fin. ii. 86), a happy life different [philosophers] base on different things, you on pleasure.

2. Complementary Infinitive.

271. (RULE 59.) Verbs which imply another action of the same subject to complete their meaning take the infinitive without a subject-accusative: as,—

hoc queo dicere (Cat. Maj. 32), this I can say.

mīttō quaerere (Rosc. Am. 53), I omit to ask.

vereor laudāre praesentem (N. D. i. 58), I fear to praise a man to his face (one who is present).

Such are verbs denoting to be able, dare, undertake, remember, forget, be accustomed, begin, continue, cease, hesitate, learn, know how, fear, and the like.

Note. — The mark of this construction is that no Subject of these infinitives is in general admissible or conceivable.

a. Many verbs take either a subjunctive clause or a complementary infinitive, without difference of meaning. Such are verbs signifying willingness, necessity, propriety, resolve, command, prohibition, effort, and the like (cf. § 331): as,—

student excellere (Off. i. 116), they aim to excel.

cum statuissem scribere ad te aliquid (Off. i. 4), when I had resolved to address something to you.

iatum exheredare in animo habebat (Rosc. Am. 52), he had it in mind to deprive him of the inheritance.

Note 1. — With some of these verbs an infinitive with subject-accusative may be used as *object*, taking the place of a *complementary* infinitive. In this use the subject of the infinitive and that of the main verb are of course the same. Thus, —

cupiō mē esse clēmentem (Cat. i. 4) = cupiō esse clēmens, I desire to be merciful (cf. § 331. b. note).

NOTE 2. — Some verbs of these classes never take the subjunctive, but are identical in meaning with others which do: as, —

- n quốt tuổn debent deserunt (Off. i. 28), they forsake those whom they should protect.
- non luber fugere aveo pugnare (Att. ii. 18, 3), I have no desire to run away, I'm anxious to fight.
- 6. Some verbs of these classes—**iubeō** and **vetō** regularly—may take (as object) the infinitive with a subject different from that of the main verb (see § 331. a): as,
 - signa inferri iubet (Liv. xlii. 59), he orders the standards to be advanced.
 - 7 Pompēius . . . rem ad arma dēdūcī studēbat (B. C. i. 4), Pompey was anxious to have matters come to open war.
- c. A Predicate Noun or Adjective after a complementary infinitive takes the case of the subject of the main verb: as,—
- 7 fierīque studēbam ējus prūdentiā doctior (Læl. 1), I was eager to become more wise through his wisdom.
 - sciō quam soleās esse occupātus (Fam. xvi. 21, 7), I know how busy you usually are (are wont to be).
- Note. If the construction of the main verb is impersonal, a predicate noun or adjective is in the accusative (but for licet, etc., see § 272. a. 2). Thus, —
- 7 peregrīnī officium est minimē in aliēnā esse rē pūblicā cūriōsum (Off. i. 125), it is a stranger's duty to be by no means curious in a foreign state.

3. Infinitive with Subject-Accusative.

272. (RULE 60.) The Infinitive, with Subject-Accusative, is used with verbs and other expressions of knowing, thinking, telling, and perceiving (Indirect Discourse, § 336): as,—

dīcit montem ab hostibus tenērī (B. G. i. 22), he says that the hill is held by the enemy. [Direct: mons ab hostibus tenētur.]

REMARK. — The Infinitive Clause may be — 1. the Direct Object of the verb: as, Caesarem adesse nuntiavit, he reported that Caesar was present; 2. the Subject of the same verb in the passive: as, Caesarem adesse nuntiatum est, it was reported that Caesar was present; 3. the Predicate Nominative after some such phrase as rumor est: as, rumor erat Caesarem adesse, there was a report that Caesar was present.

- a. 1. With certain impersonal verbs and expressions that take the infinitive as an apparent subject (\S 270. b), the personal subject of the action may be expressed—
 - (1) By a dative, depending on the verb or verbal phrase: or
- (2) By an accusative expressed as the subject of the infinitive. Thus, —

rogant ut id sibi facere liceat (B. G. i. 7), they ask that it be allowed them to do this.

- exstingui homini suo tempore optabile est (Cat. Maj. 85), it is desirable for a man to die at the appointed time.
- 2. With licet regularly, and other verbs occasionally, a predicate noun or adjective following the infinitive may be in the dative: as,—

 7 liquit esse ötiösö Themistoclī (Tusc. i. 33), Themistocles might have been inactive (it was allowed to T. to be inactive).
 - cur his esse liberos non licet (Flacc. 71), why is it not allowed these men to be free?

non est stantibus omnibus necesse dicere (Marc. 33), it is not necessary for all to speak standing.

Note. — When the subject is not expressed, as being indefinite (one, anybody), a predicate noun or adjective must be in the accusative (cf. § 271. c. note): as, —

- vel pace vel bello clarum fieri licet (Sall. Cat. 3), one can become illustrious either in peace or in war.
- b. In poetry, by a Greek idiom, a Predicate Noun or Adjective in the indirect discourse sometimes agrees with the subject of the main verb: as,—

sēnsit mediōs dēlāpsus in hostēs (Æn. ii. 377), he found himself fallen among the foe. [In prose: sē esse dēlāpsum.]

4. Infinitive of Purpose.

- 278. In a few cases the Infinitive retains its original meaning of Purpose.
- a. The infinitive is used after habeo, do, ministro, in isolated passages instead of a subjunctive clause: as,—

tantum habeō pollicērī (Fam. i. 5), so much I have to promise. [Here the more formal construction would be quod pollicear.]

merīdiē bibere datō (Cato R. R. 89), give (to) drink at noonday.

b. Parātus, suētus and their compounds (used as adjectives) take the infinitive, like the verbs from which they come: as,—

currū succedere suētī (Æn. iii. 541), accustomed to being harnessed to the chariot.

adsuēfactī superārī (B. G. vi. 24), used to being conquered.

- Note. These words more commonly in prose take the gerund or gerundive construction (§§ 296 ff.) either in the Dative, the Genitive, or the Accusative with ad. Thus, —
- ? alendīs līberīs suētī (Tac. Ann. xiv. 27), accustomed to supporting children. insuētus nāvigandī (B. G. v. 6), unused to making voyages. corpora īnsuēta ad onera portanda (B. C. i. 78), bodies unaccustomed to
 - carry burdens.
- c. In poetry and later writers almost any verb may have the infinitive, after the analogy of verbs of more literal meaning that take it in prose: as,—

parce scelerare (Æn. iii. 42), forbear to pollute.

d. Many adjectives take the infinitive in poetry following a Greek idiom: as,

cantārī dīgnus (Ecl. v. 54), worthy to be sung. [In prose: qui cantētur.]
cantāre periti (Ecl. x. 32), skilled in song.

nescia vincī pectora (Æn. xii. 527), hearts not knowing how to yield.

e. The poets and early writers often use the infinitive to express purpose when there is no analogy with any prose construction: as,—

lorīcam/donat habēre viro (Æn. v. 262), he gives the hero a breastplate to wear. [In prose: habendam.]

non ferro Libycos populare Penates venimus (An. i. 527), we have not come to lay waste with the sword the Libyan homes.

NOTE. — So rarely in prose writers of the classic period.

f. For the infinitive used instead of a substantive clause of purpose, see § 331. a-g.

Note. — For tempus est abire, see § 298. note.

g. Rarely in poetry the infinitive is used to express result: as, ______fingit ecum tenera docilem cervice magister ire viam, etc. (Hor. Ep. i. 2. 64), makes the horse gentle so as to go, etc.

hīc levāre . . . pauperem laboribus vocātus audit (Hor. Od. ii. 18. 38), he when called, hears, so as to relieve, etc.

5. Exclamatory Infinitive.

- 274. The Infinitive, with subject-accusative, may be used in Exclamations (cf. § 240. d): as,
 - të in tantas aerumnas propter më incidisse (Fam. xiv. 1), alas! that you should have fallen into such grief for me.
- mêne incepto desistere victam (Æn. i. 37), what! I beaten desist from my purpose?

Note. — The Present and the Perfect Infinitive are used in this construction with their ordinary distinction of time.

6. Historical Infinitive.

275. (RULE 61.) The Infinitive is often used for the Imperfect Indicative in narration, and takes a subject in the nominative: as,—

- tum Catilīna pollicērī novās tabulās (Sall. Cat. 21), then Catiline promised abolition of debts (clean ledgers).
- ego înstăre ut mihi responderet (Verr. ii. 188), I kept urging him to answer me.
- pars cēdere, aliī īnsequī; neque sīgna neque ordinēs servāre; ubi quemque perīculum cēperat, ibi resistere āc propulsāre, arma, tēla, equī, virī, hostēs atque cīvēs permīxtī, nihil consilio neque imperio agī; fors omnia regere (Jug. 51), a part give way, others press on; they hold neither to standards nor ranks; where danger overtook, there each would stand and fight; arms, weapons, horses, men, foe and friend, mingled in confusion; nothing went by counsel or command; chance ruled all.

NOTE. — This construction is not strictly historical, but rather descriptive, and is never used to state a mere historical fact.

TENSES.

I. TENSES OF INCOMPLETE ACTION.

z. Present (General Use).

276. The Present Tense denotes an action or state (1) as now taking place or existing; and so (2) as incomplete in present time, or (3) as indefinite, referring to no particular time, but denoting a general truth. Thus,—

- senātus haec intellegit, consul videt, hīc tamen vivit (Cat. i. 2), the Senate knows this, the consul sees it, yet this man lives.
- tibi concēdo meās sēdēs (Div. i. 104), I give you my seat (an offer which may or may not be accepted).
- obsequium amīcos, vēritās odium parit (Ter. And. 68), flattery gains friends, truth hatred. [General truth.]
- a. The Present, with expressions of duration of time, especially iam din, iam dudum, denotes an action continuing in the present, but begun in the past (cf. § 277. b): as,
 - tē iam dūdum hortor (Cat. i. 12), I have long urged you.
 - patimur iam multōs annōs (Verr. v. 126), we suffer now these many years.

 [The perfect would imply, we no longer suffer.]
- NOTE 1. In this use the present is commonly to be rendered by the perfect in English.
- NOTE 2. Similarly the Present Imperative with iam dūdum indicates that the action commanded ought to have been done or was wished for long ago (cf. the Perfect Imperative in Greek): as,—

iam dudum sumite poenas (Æn. ii. 103), exact the penalty long delayed.

- b. The Present sometimes denotes an action attempted or begun in present time, but never completed (Conative Present, cf. § 277. c): as,
 - iam iamque manū tenet (Æn. ii. 530), and now, even now, he attempts to grasp him.
 - densos fertur in hostis (id. 511), he starts to rush into the thickest of the foe.
 - decerno quinquaginta dierum supplicationes (Phil. xiv. 29), I move for fifty days' thanksgiving. [Cf. senatus decrevit, the senate ordained.]
- c. The Present, especially in colloquial language and poetry, is often used for the Future: as,
 - imusne sēssum (De Or. iii. 17), shall we take a seat (are we going to sit)? haud mūtō factum (Ter. And. 40), I do not wish to change it (I am not trying to change).
 - hodië uxorem ducis (id. 321), are you to be married to-day?
 - sī pereō hominum manibus periisse iuvābit (Æn. iii. 606), if I perish, it will be pleasant to perish at the hands of men (cf. § 307. a. note).

2. Historical Present.

d. The Present in lively narrative is often used for the Historical Perfect (Historical Present): as,—

affertur nuntius Syrācusās; curritur ad praetorium; Cleomenēs, quamquam nox erat, tamen in publico esse non audet; includit se domī (Vert. v. 92), the news is brought to Syracuse; they run to headquarters; Cleomenes, though it was night, does not venture to be abroad; he shuts himself up at home.

Note. — This usage, common in all languages, comes from imagining past events as going on before our eyes (repraesentātiō).

3. Present with dum.

e. Dum, while, regularly takes the Present Indicative in reference to past events.

In translating, the English Imperfect must generally be used. Thus,—

hoc dum narrat, forte audīvī (Ter. Heaut. 272), I happened to hear this while she was telling it.

NOTE. — A past tense with dum (usually so long as) makes the time emphatic by contrast. But a few irregular cases of dum with a past tense occur where no contrast is intended. Thus,—

nec enim dum eram võbīscum animum meum vidēbātis (Cat. Maj. 79), while I was with you, you could n't see my soul. [Here the time when he was alive is contrasted with that after his death.]

coorta est pūgna, pār dum constābant ordinēs (Liv. xxii. 47), a conflict began, well matched as long as the ranks stood firm.

But—dum unum adscendere gradum conatus est, venit in persculum (Mur. 55), while he attempted to climb one step [in rank] he fell into danger.

f. The present is regularly used in quoting writers whose works are extant: as, —

Epicurus vero ea dicit (Tusc. ii. 17), but Epicurus says such things.

4. Imperfect.

277. The Imperfect denotes an action or a state as continued or repeated in past time: as,—

Socrates ita censebat itaque disseruit (Tusc. i. 72), Socrates thought so (habitually), and so he spoke (then).

iamque rubëscëbat Aurora (Æn. iii. 521), and now the dawn was blushing.

NOTE. — The Imperfect is a descriptive tense and denotes an action conceived as in progress or a state of things as actually observed. Hence in many verbs it does not differ in meaning from the Perfect. Thus rex erat

and rex fuit may often be used indifferently; but the former describes the condition while the latter only states it. The English is less exact in distinguishing these two modes of statement. Hence the Latin Imperfect is often translated by the English Preterite. Thus,—

Aedul graviter ferebant, neque legatos ad Caesarem mittere audebant (B. G. v. 6), the Ædui were displeased and did not dare, etc. [Here the Imperfects describe the state of things.] But —

id tulit factum graviter Indutiomarus (id. v. 4), Indutiomarus was displeased, etc. [Here the Perfect merely states the fact.]

aedificia vicosque habebant (id. iv. 4), they had buildings and villages.

REMARK. — The Imperfect represents a present tense transferred to past time. If ence all the meanings which the present has derived from the continuance of the action belong also to the imperfect in reference to past time (see details below).

- a. The Imperfect is used in *descriptions*: as, erant omnīnō itinera duo...mōns altissimus impendēbat (B. G. i. 6),
- there were in all two ways . . . a very high mountain overhung.
- b. With iam did, iam dddum, and other expressions of duration of time, the Imperfect denotes an action continuing in the past but begun at some previous time (cf. § 115. a. 2): as,—

iam dūdum flebam (Ov. M. iii. 656), I had been weeping for a long time. copias quas did comparabant (Fam. xi. 13. 5), the forces which they had long been getting ready.

Note. — In this construction the Imperfect is rendered by the English Pluperfect. Compare the Present in similar phrases (§ 276. a).

- c. The Imperfect sometimes denotes an action as begun (Inceptive Imperfect), or as attempted or only intended (Conative Imperfect) (cf. § 276. b): as,
 - in exsilium sicisbam quem iam ingressum esse in bellum videbam (Cat. il. 14), was I sending (i.e. trying to send) into exile one who I saw had already gone into war?
 - hunc igitur diem sibi proponens Milo, cruentis manibus ad illa augusta centuriārum auspicia veniebat (Mil. 43), was Milo coming (i.e. was it likely that he would come), etc.?
 - tamque arva tenebant ultima (En. vi. 477), and now they were just getting to the farthest fields.
- d. The Imperfect is sometimes used to express a surprise at the present discovery of a fact already existing: as,
 - Ō tū quoque aderās (Ter. Ph. 858), oh! you are here too.

- e. The Imperfect is often used in dialogue where we should expect the Perfect : as,
 - ad amīcum Calliclem quoi rem aībat mandāsse hīc suam (Plaut. Trin. 956), to his friend Callicles, to whom, he said, he had intrusted his property.
- Note. So also, in conversation, the imperfect of verbs of saying (cf. as I was a-saying): as,
 - at medicī quoque, ita enim dīcēbās, saepe falluntur (N. D. iii. 15), for that was what you were saying just now.
 - f. For the Imperfect in apodosis contrary to fact, see § 308. b.
- g. The Imperfect with negative words often has the force of the English auxiliary could or would: as,
 - itaque (Dāmoclēs) nec pulchrōs illōs ministrātōrēs adspiciēbat (Tusc. v. 62), therefore he could not look upon those beautiful slaves. [In this case did not would not express the idea of continued prevention of enjoyment by the overhanging sword.]
 - nec enim dum eram vobiscum animum meum videbātis (Cat. Maj. 79)

 for, you know, while I was with you, you could not see my soul. [Here
 the Perfect would refer only to one moment.]

s. Future.

- 278. The Future denotes an action or state that will occur hereafter.
- a. The Future sometimes has the force of an Imperative (see § 269. f).
- b. The Future is often required in a subordinate clause in Latin where in English futurity is sufficiently shown by the main clause: as,—

cum aderit vidēbit, when he is there he will see (cf. § 325. c). sānābimur sī volēmus (Tusc. iii. 13), we shall be healed if we wish.

II. THE TENSES OF COMPLETED ACTION.

z. Perfect.

279. The Perfect denotes an action either as now completed (Perfect Definite), or as having taken place at some undefined point of past time (Historical or Aoristic Perfect). Thus,—

- (1) ut ego fēcī, quī Graecās litterās senex didicī (Cat. Maj. 26), as I have done, who have learned Greek in my old age.
- (2) tantum bellum extrēmā hieme apparāvit, ineunte vēre suscēpit, mediā aestāte confēcit (Man. 35), so great a war he made ready for at the end of winter, undertook in early spring, and finished by midsummer.

Note. — The distinction between these two uses of the perfect, though almost if not wholly lost to the minds of the Romans, must be noticed, on account of the marked distinction in English (see also § 115. c).

a. The perfect is sometimes used emphatically to denote that a thing or condition of things that once existed no longer exists: as,—

fuit ista quondam in hac re publica virtus (Cat. i. 3), there was once such virtue in this commonwealth.

habuit, non habet (Tusc. i. 87), he had, he has no longer.

fuimus Troes, fuit Ilium (An. ii. 325), we have ceased to be Trojans, Troy is no more.

- b. The Indefinite Present, denoting a customary action or a general truth (§ 276), often has the Perfect in a subordinate clause referring to time antecedent to that of the main clause: as,
 - quī in compedibus corporis semper fuērunt, etiam cum solūtī sunt tardius ingrediuntur (Tusc. i. 75), they who have always been in the fetters of the body, even when released move more slowly.
- c. The perfect is sometimes used of a general truth, especially with negatives (Gnomic Perfect): as,—

non aeris acervus et auri deduxit corpore febres (Hor. Ep. i. 2. 47), the pile of brass and gold removes not fever from the frame.

- NOTE. The gnomic perfect strictly refers to past time; but its use implies that something which never did happen in any known case, never does happen, and never will (cf. the English "Faint heart never won fair lady"); or without a negative that what has once happened will always happen under similar circumstances.
- d. The Perfect is often used in expressions containing or implying a negation, where in affirmation the Imperfect would be preferred: as,
 - dicēbat melius quam scripsit Hortēnsius (Or. 132), Hortensius spoke better than he wrote. [Here the negative is implied in the comparison.]
- e. The completed tenses of some verbs are equivalent to the incomplete tenses of verbs of kindred meaning.

Such are the preteritive verbs \overline{odi} , I hate; memini, I remember; $n\overline{ovi}$ I know; $c\overline{onsuevi}$, I am accustomed, with others sometimes used preteritively, as $v\overline{enerat}$ (= aderat, he was at hand, etc.) (see § 143. note). Thus, —

quī diēs aestūs māximōs efficere cōnsuēvit (B. G. iv. 29), which day generally makes the highest tides (is accustomed to make).

cūius splendor obsolēvit (Quinc. 68), whose splendor is now all faded (has become old).

REMARK. — Many other verbs are occasionally so used: as, —

dum oculos certamen averterat (Liv. xxxii. 24), while the contest had turned their eyes (kept them turned). [Here averterat = tenebat.]

2. Pluperfect.

- 280. The Pluperfect is used (1) to denote an action or state *completed* in past time; or (2) sometimes to denote an action in indefinite time, but prior to some past time referred to: as,—
- (1) locī nātūra erat haec, quem locum nostrī castrīs dēlēgerant (B. G. ii. 18), this was the nature of the ground our men had chosen for a camp. Viridovix summam imperī tenēbat eārum omnium cīvitātum quae dēfēcerant (id. iii. 17), Viridovix held the chief command of all those tribes
- (2) neque vero cum aliquid mandaverat confectum putabat (Cat. iii. 16), but when he had given a thing in charge he did not look on it as done.

which had revolted.

quae sī quandō adepta est id quod eī fuerat concupītum, tum fert alacritātem (Tusc. iv. 35), if it (desire) ever has gained what it had [previously] desired, then it produces joy.

3. Future Perfect.

- 281. The Future Perfect denotes an action as completed in the future: as,
 - ut sēmentem fēceris, ita metēs (De Or. ii. 261), as you sow (shall have sown), so shall you reap.
 - carmina tum melius cum vēnerit ipse canēmus (Ecl. ix. 67), then shall we sing our songs better, when he himself has come.
 - ego certe meum officium praestitero (B. G. iv. 25), I at least shall have done my duty (i.e. when the time comes to reckon up the matter, I shall be found to have done it, whatever the event).

¹ Cf. dētestor, reminiscor, sciō, soleō.

REMARK. — The Future Perfect is used with much greater exactness in Latin than in English, and may even be used instead of the Future, from the fondness of the Latins for representing an action as completed: as,—

quid inventum sit paulo post videro (Acad. ii. 76), what has been found out I will see presently.

III. EPISTOLARY TENSES.

282. In Letters, the Perfect Historical or the Imperfect may be used for the present, and the Pluperfect for any past tense, as if the letter were *dated* at the time it is supposed to be *received*: as,—

neque tamen, cum haec scríbēbam, eram nescius quantis oneribus premerēre (Fam. v. 12, 2), nor while I write this am I ignorant under what burdens you are weighed down.

IV. TENSES OF THE SUBJUNCTIVE.

- 283. The tenses of the Subjunctive in Independent Clauses denote time in relation to the time of the speaker. The Present always refers to future (or indefinite) time, the Imperfect to either past or present, the Perfect to either future or past, the Pluperfect always to past.
- √ 284. In Dependent Clauses the tenses of the Subjunctive were habitually used in certain fixed connections determined by the time of the main verb and the time of the dependent verb together.

Sequence of Tenses.

285. The tenses of the Subjunctive in Dependent clauses follow special rules for the SEQUENCE OF TENSES.

With reference to these rules all tenses when used in *Independent* clauses are divided into two classes, — *primary* and *secondary*.

I. PRIMARY. The primary tenses include all forms that express present or future time. These are the Present, Future, and Future Perfect Indicative, the Present and Perfect Subjunctive, and the Present and Future Imperative.

Note. — The Perfect Definite is sometimes treated as primary, but see § 287. a.

2. SECONDARY. The secondary tenses include all forms that refer to past time. These are the Imperfect, Perfect, and Pluperfect Indicative, the Imperfect and Pluperfect Subjunctive, and the Historical Infinitive.

Note.—To these may be added certain forms less commonly used in Independent Clauses. Such are (1) Primary: Present Infinitive in Exclamations; (2) Secondary: Perfect Infinitive in Exclamations (see § 287. a. note).

286. (RULE 62.) In complex sentences a Primary tense in the main clause is followed by the Present or Perfect in the dependent clause, and a Secondary tense by the Imperfect or Pluperfect: as,—

scrībit ut nos moneat, he writes to warn us.
scrībet ut nos moneat, he will write to warn us.
scrībe (scrībitō) ut nos moneās, write that you may warn us.
scrīpsit ut nos moneret, he wrote to warn us.
scrībit quasi oblītus sit, he writes as if he had forgotten.
scrīpsit quasi oblītus esset, he wrote as if he had forgotten.
rogō quid factūrus sīs I ask what you are going to do.

Note.—This rule affects only the tenses of the Subjunctive in dependent clauses. The tenses of the other moods and those of the Subjunctive in independent constructions (as in apodosis contrary to fact, § 308) are not affected by the sequence of tenses. (But cf. §§ 338. note 2, 339. note 2.)

REMARK. — In applying the rule for the sequence of tenses, observe (1) whether the main verb is (a) primary or (b) secondary, (2) whether the dependent verb is to denote completed action (i.e. past with reference to the main verb), or incomplete (i.e. present or future with reference to the main verb). Then—

(a) If the leading verb is primary, the dependent verb must be in the Present if it denotes incomplete action, in the Perfect if it denotes completed action.

(b) If the leading verb is secondary, the dependent verb must be in the Imperfect if it denotes incomplete action, in the Pluperfect if it denotes completed action. Thus,—

he writes (primary) to warn (incomplete) us, scrībit ut nos moneat. I ask (primary) what you were doing (now past), rogo quid feceris.

Notice that the Future Perfect denotes action completed (at the time referred to), and hence is represented in the Subjunctive by the Perfect or Pluperfect. Thus,—

I ask what you will have accomplished, rogo quid perfeceris.

he asked what he would have accomplished, rogāvit quid perfēcisset.

- 287. In the Sequence of Tenses some special points are to be noted:—
- a. The Perfect Indicative is ordinarily a secondary tense, but allows the primary sequence when the present time is clearly in the writer's mind. Thus,
 - ut satis esset praesidī provisum est (Cat. ii. 26), provision has been made that there should be ample guard. [Secondary sequence.]
 - addūxī hominem in quō satisfacere exterīs nātiōnibus possētis (Verr. i. 2),

 I have brought a man in whose person you can make satisfaction to foreign nations. [Secondary sequence.]
 - ea adhibita doctrīna est quae vel vitiosissimam nātūram excolere possit (Q. Fr. i. 1, 7), such instruction has been given as can train even the faultiest nature. [Primary sequence.]
- Note. The Perfect Infinitive in Exclamations follows the same rule: as,
 - adeon rem redisse patrem ut extimescam (Ter. Ph. 153), to think that things have come to such a pass that I should dread my father.
- b. After a primary tense the Perfect Subjunctive is regularly used to denote any past action, and may represent—
 - 1. A Perfect Definite: as, -
 - non dubito quin omnes tui scripserint (Fam. v. 8), I do not doubt that all your friends have written. [Direct statement: scripserunt.]
 - quare non ignoro quid accidat b ültimis terris, cum audierim in Italia querelas civium (Q. Fr. i. 1, 33), therefore I know well what happens at the ends of the earth, when I have heard in Italy the complaints of citisens. [In a direct statement, audivi.]
 - 2. A Perfect Historical: as, -
 - mē autem hīc laudat quod retulerim, non quod patefēcerim (Att. xii. 21), me he praises because I brought the matter [before the senate], not because I brought it to light. [Direct statement: retulit.]

- 3. An Imperfect: as, —
- sī forte ceciderint tum intellegitur quam fuerint inopēs amīcōrum (Læl. 53), if by chance they fall (have fallen), then one can see how poor they were in friends. [Direct question: quam inopēs erant?]
- quī status rērum fuerit cum hās litterās dedī scīre poteris ex C. Tidiō Strabōne (Fam. xii. 6), what the state of affairs was when I wrote this letter, you can learn from Strabo. [Direct question: quī erat?]
- Note.—Thus the Perfect Subjunctive may represent, not only a Perfect Definite or a Perfect Historical of a direct statement or question, but an Imperfect as well. This comes from the want of any special tense of the subjunctive to express continued action after a primary tense. Thus, miror quid fecerit may mean (1) I wonder what he has done, (2) I wonder what he did (hist. perf.), or (3) I wonder what he was doing.
- c. In clauses of Result, the Perfect Subjunctive is very often (the Present rarely) used after secondary tenses: as,—
 - Hortensius ardebat dicendi cupiditate sic ut nullo unquam flagrantius studium viderim (Brut. 302), Hortensius was so hot with desire of speaking that I have never seen a more burning ardor in any man.
 - Siciliam Verres per triennium ita vēxāvit āc perdidit, ut ea restituī in antīcum statum nūllō modō possit (Verr. i. 12), for three years Verres so racked and ruined Sicily, that she can in no way be restored to her former state. [Here the Present describes a state of things actually existing.]
- REMARK. This construction emphasizes the result; the regular construction subordinates it.
- Note. There is a special fondness for the Perfect Subjunctive to represent a Perfect Indicative. Thus,
 - Thorius erat ita non superstitiosus ut illa plūrima in suā patriā et sacrificia et fāna contemneret; ita non timidus ad mortem ut in acië sit ob rem pūblicam interfectus (Fin. ii. 63), Thorius was so little superstitious that he despised [contemnēbat] the many sacrifices and shrines in his country; so little timorous about death that he was killed [interfectus est] in battle, in atjence of the State.
 - Zēnō nūllō modō is erat qui nervōs virtūtis incīderet (cf. § 279. d); sed contrā quī omnia in ūnā virtūte pōneret (Acad. i. 35), Zeno was by no means one to cut the sinews of virtue; but one, on the contrary, who made everything depend on virtue alone. [incīdit . . . pōnēbat.]
- d. A general truth after a past tense follows the sequence of tenses: as, —

- ex hīs quae tribuisset sibi quam mūtābilis esset reputābat (Q. C. iii. 8, 20), from what she (Fortune) had bestowed on him, he reflected how inconstant she is. [Direct: mūtābilis est.]
- ibi quantam vim ad stimulandos animos Ira haberet appāruit (Liv. xxxiii. 37), here it appeared what power anger has to goad the mind. [Direct: habet.]
 - NOTE. In English the original tense is more commonly kept.
- e. The Historical Present (§ 276. d) is sometimes felt as a primary, sometimes as a secondary tense. Accordingly it is followed by either the primary or the secondary sequence, more commonly by the secondary. Thus,
 - rogat ut curet quod dixisset (Quinct. 18), he asks him to attend to the thing he had spoken of.
 - castella communit quo facilius prohibere posset (B. G. i. 8), he strengthens the forts that he might more easily keep them off.
- Note. After the historical present, cum temporal with the subjunctive must follow the secondary sequence.
- f. The Imperfect and Pluperfect in conditions contrary to fact (§ 308) are not affected by the sequence of tenses: as,
 - quia tale sit, ut vel si ignorarent homines, etc. (Fin. ii. 49), because it is such that even if men WERE ignorant, etc.
- g. The Imperfect Subjunctive in present conditions contrary to fact (§ 308) is regularly followed by the secondary sequence: as,
 - sī aliī consulēs essent, ad tē potissimum, Paulle, mitterem, ut eos mihi quam amīcissimos redderēs (Fam. xv. 13), if there were other consuls, I should send to you, Paulus, in preference to all, that you might make them as friendly to me as possible.
 - sī eos diceres miseros quibus moriendum esset, nēminem exciperes (Tusc. i. 9), if you called those wretched who must die, you would except no one.
- h. The Present is sometimes followed by a secondary sequence, seemingly because the writer is thinking of past time (Synesis): as,
 - sed tamen ut scīrēs haec tibi scrībō (Fam. xiii. 47), but yet that you may know, I write thus. [As if he had used the common epistolary imperfect scrībēbam (§ 282).]
 - cūius praeceptī tanta vīs est ut ea non hominī cuipiam sed Delphico deo tribuerētur (Leg. i. 58), such is the force of this precept, that it was ascribed not to any man, but to the Delphic god. [The precept was an old one.]

- Note. The rules for the sequence of tenses must not be regarded as inflexible. They were often disregarded by the Romans themselves, either from carelessness or purposely for one reason or another.
- i. When a clause depends upon one already dependent, the sequence becomes secondary as soon as the time is thrown back into the past by any form that represents past time: as,
 - tantum profeciese videmur ut a Graecis ne verborum quidem copia vinceremur (N. D. i. 8), we seem to have advanced so far that even in fulness of words we ARE not surpassed by the Greeks.
 - But beātē vīxisse videor quia cum Scīpione vīxerim (Læl. 15), I seem to have lived happily in that I have lived with Scipio (who had just died).
- Note. For the application of this rule to Indirect Discourse, see § 336. B. note.

V. Tenses of the Infinitive.

288. (RULE 63.) The Tenses of the Infinitive denote present, past, or future time, relatively to the time of the verb on which they depend: as,—

nostros non esse înferiores intellexit (B. G. ii. 8), he ascertained that our men were not inferior. [Direct: sunt.]

- quam Iūnō fertur terrīs magis omnibus coluisse (Æn. i. 15), which Juno is said to have cherished above all lands. [Direct: colebat.]
- spērant sē māximum früctum esse captūros (Læl. 79), they hope they shall receive the greatest advantage. [Direct: capienus.]
- a. With past tenses of verbs of necessity, propriety, and possibility (as potui, dēbui, and oportuit) the Present infinitive must be rendered by the Perfect infinitive in English: as,—

scire potuit (Milo, 46), he might have known.

- quī vidēbātur omnīnō morī nōn dēbuisse (Arch. 17), who seemed [one that] ought not to have died at all.
- b. For the tenses of the infinitive in Indirect Discourse, see § 336. A.
- c. Except in indirect discourse, the Present is the only tense of the infinitive in common use. It has no distinct reference to time. Thus,
 - est adulēscentis māiorēs nātū verērī (Off. i. 122), it is [the duty] of a youth to reverence his elders.

d. With verbs of wishing, necessity, and the like, the Perfect Passive infinitive is often used instead of the Present: as, —

quod iam prīdem factum esse oportuit (Cat. i. 5), which ought to have been done long ago (cf. a, above).

REMARK. — In early and late Latin, and in poetry, rarely in good prose, the Perfect Active infinitive is also used instead of the Present, and even with other verbs than those of wishing and the like: as, —

commississe cavet (Hor. A. P. 168), he is cautious of doing.

e. With verbs of feeling the Perfect infinitive is used, especially by the poets, to denote a completed action.

So also with satis est, satis habeo, melius est, contentus sum, and in a few other cases where the distinction of time is important. Thus, —

pudet mē non praestitisse (Fam. xiv. 3), I am ashamed not to have shown. sunt quōs curriculo pulverem Olympicum collegisse iuvat (Hor. Od. i.

1. 3), there are those who delight, etc.
quiesse erit melius (Liv. iii. 48), it will be better to have kept quiet.

no supine stem (cf. §§ 302. Rem., 332. e). Thus, —

f. The Future infinitive is often expressed by fore (or futurum esse) ut with the subjunctive; so necessarily in verbs which have

spērō fore ut contingat id nōbīs (Tusc. i. 82), I hope that will be our happy lot.

II. NOUN AND ADIECTIVE FORMS.

The several Noun and Adjective forms associated with the verb are employed as follows:—

¹ Chiefly volö, nölö, mālō, oportet, decet.

- 1. Genitive as Objective Genitive (§ 298).
- 2. Gerund or Gerundius: 2. Dative, with Adjectives, Nouns, Verbs (§ 299). 3. Accusative, with certain Prepositions (§ 300).
 - 4. Ablative, of Means, Comparison, or with Prepositions (§ 301.)
- 3. Supine: [1. Former Supine (in -um), with Verbs of Motion (§ 302).
 2. Latter Supine (in -ū), chiefly with Adjectives (§ 303).

PARTICIPLES.

289. The Participle expresses the action of the verb in the form of an Adjective; but has a partial distinction of tense, and may govern a case.

NOTE. — Thus the participle combines all the functions of an adjective with some of the functions of a verb. As an adjective, it limits substantives, and agrees with them in gender, number, and case (§ 186). As a verb, it has distinctions of time (§ 290), and often takes an object.

1. Distinctions of Tense.

290. (Rule 64.) Participles denote time as *present*, past, or future with respect to the time of the verb in their clause.

Thus the Present Participle represents the action as in progress at the time indicated by the tense of the verb, the Perfect as completed, and the Future as still to take place.

- a. The Present Participle has several of the special uses of the Present Indicative. Thus it may denote —
- i. An action continued in the present but begun in the past (§ 276. a): as,—

quaerentī mihi iamdiū certa rēs nūlla veniēbat in mentem (Fam. iv. 13), though I had long sought, no certain thing came to my mind.

- 2. Attempted action (§ 276. b): as, —
- C. Fläminiö restitit agrum Picentem dividenti (Cat. Maj. 11), he resisted Flaminius when attempting to divide the Picene territory.
- 3. Futurity (§ 276. c): as, —

ions in Pompeianum bene mane haec scripsi (Att. iv. 9), I write this when about going very early to my place at Pompeii.

- b. The Perfect Participle of a few deponent verbs is used nearly in the sense of a Present.
- So, regularly, ratus, solitus, veritus; commonly, fisus, ausus, secutus, and occasionally others, especially in later writers. Thus, cohortatus milites docuit (B. C. iii. 80), encouraging the men, he showed. Iratus dixisti (Mur. 62), you spoke in a passion.

oblitus auspiciorum (Phil. i. 31), forgetting the auspices.

īnsidiās veritus (B. G. ii. II), fearing ambuscade.

- c. The Latin has no Present Participle in the passive. The place of such a form is supplied usually by a clause with dum or cum, rarely by the participle in -dus: as,
 - nüllīs ēvidentibus causīs obiēre dum calceantur mātūtīnō duo Caesarēs (Plin. N. H. vii. 181), from no obvious cause two Cæsars died while having their shoes put on in the morning.
 - mêque ista délectant cum Latine dicuntur (Acad. i. 13), those things please me when they are spoken in Latin.
 - crucibus adfīxī aut flammandī (Tac. Ann. xv. 44), crucified or set on fire (in flames).
- Note. The constructions with dum and cum are often used when a participle might be employed: as,
 - dic, hospes, Spartae, nos tē hīc vidisse iacentēs, dum sanctīs patriae lēgibus obsequimur, tell it, stranger, at Sparta, that you saw us lying here obedient to our country's sacred laws. [Here dum obsequimur is a translation of the Greek present participle πειθόμενοι.]
- d. The Latin has no Perfect Participle in the active voice. The deficiency is supplied —
- 1. In deponents by the perfect passive form with its regular active meaning: as,
 - nam sīngulās [nāvēs] nostrī consectātī expūgnāvērunt (B. G. iii. 15), for our men having overtaken them one by one, captured them by boarding.
- 2. In other verbs, by the ablative absolute with a change of voice (§ 255. d. note) or by a clause (especially with cum or dum): as,
 - itaque convocatis centurionibus milites certiores facit (B. G. iii. 5), and so, having called the centurions together, he informs the soldiers (the centurions having been called together).
 - cum vēnisset animadvertit collem (id. vii. 44), having come (when he had come), he noticed a hill.
- NOTE. The perfect participle of several deponent verbs may be either active or passive in meaning (§ 135. b).

2. Adjective Use.

291. The Present and Perfect participles are used sometimes as attributive, nearly like adjectives: as,—

cum antiquissimam sententiam tum comprobatam (Div. i. 11), a view at once most ancient and well approved.

sīgna nunquam ferē ēmentientia (id. 15), signs hardly ever deceitful. auspiciīs ūtuntur coāctīs (id. 27), they use forced auspices.

a. Participles often become complete adjectives, and may be compared or used as nouns. Thus, —

quo mulieri esset res cautior (Cæcin. 11), that the matter might be more secure for the woman.

in illīs artibus praestantissimus (De Or. i. 217), preëminent in those arts. sibi indulgentēs et corporī dēservientēs (Leg. i. 39), the self-indulgent, and slaves to the body (indulging themselves and serving the body).

male parta male dīlābuntur (Phil. ii. 65), ill-got, ill-spent (things ill-acquired, etc.).

consuetudo valentis (De Or. ii. 186), the habit of a man in health.

b. Participles are often used as Predicate Adjectives. As such they may be joined to the subject by esse or a copulative verb (see $\S\S$ 186. b; 176. a): as,—

Gallia est divisa (B. G. i. 1), Gaul is divided. locus qui nunc saeptus est (Liv. i. 8), the place which is now enclosed.

REMARK. — From this predicate use arise the compound tenses of the passive, — the participle of *completed action* with the incomplete tenses of esse developing the idea of past time: as interfectus est, he was (or has been) killed, lit. he is having-been-killed (i.e. already slain).

In the best writers (as Cicero), the perfect participle, when used with fui, etc., retains its proper force; but in later writers the two sets of tenses (as amātus sum or fui), are often used indiscriminately to form the tenses of the perfect system in the passive: as,—

arma quae fixa in parietibus fuerant, humī inventa sunt (Div. i. 74), the arms which had been fastened on the walls were found upon the ground. [Cf. occupātī sunt et fuērunt (Off. i. 57), are and have been engaged. The difference between this and arma quae, etc., is, that occupātus in this sense is used only as an adjective.]

a. Predicate Use.

292. The Present and Perfect participles are often used as a predicate, where in English a phrase or clause would be usual.

In this use the participles express time, cause, occasion, condition, concession, characteristic (or description), manner, means, attendant circumstances. Thus,—

- volventes hostilia cadavera amicum reperiebant (Sall. Cat. 61), while rolling over the corpses of the enemy they found a friend. [Time.]
- paululum commorātus, sīgna canere iubet (Sall. Cat. 59, 1), after delaying a little while, he orders to give the signal. [Time.]
- longius prosequi veritus, ad Ciceronem pervenit (B. G. v. 52), because he feared to follow further, he came to Cicero. [Cause.]
- quī scīret laxās dare iūssus habēnās (Æn. i. 63), who might know how to give them loose rein when bidden. [Occasion.]
- damnātum poenam sequī oportēbat (B. G. i. 4), if condemned, punishment must overtake him. [Condition.]
- salūtem īnspērantibus reddidistī (Marc. 21), you have restored a safety which we did not hope. [Concession.]
- Dardanius caput ecce puer detectus (Æn. x. 133), the Trojan boy with his head uncovered: [Description.]
- nec trepidēs in ūsum poscentis aevī pauca (Hor. Od. ii. 11. 5), be not anxious for the needs of age that demands little. [Characteristic.]
- incităti fugă montes altissimos petebant (B. C. iii. 93), in headlong flight they made for the highest mountains. [Manner.]
- mīlitēs sublevātī aliī ab aliīs māgnam partem itineris cōnficerent (B. C. i. 68), the soldiers helped up by each other, etc. [Means.]
- hoc laudans, Pompēius idem iūrāvit (B. C. iii. 87), approving this, Pompey took the same oath. [Attendant circumstance.]
- aut sedens aut ambulans disputabam (Tusc. i. 7), I conducted the discussion either sitting or walking. [Circumstance.]
- REMARK. These uses are especially frequent in the ablative absolute (§ 255. d). A co-ordinate clause is sometimes compressed into a perfect participle: as,
 - instructos ordines in locum aecum deducit (Sall. Cat. 59), he draws up the lines, and leads them to level ground.
 - ut hos transductos necaret (B. G. v. 6), that he might carry them over and put them to death.

- NOTE. I. A participle with a negative often expresses the same idea which in English is given by without and a verbal noun: as,
 - miserum est nihil proficientem angī (N. D. iii. 14), it is wretched to vex oneself without effecting anything.
- NOTE 2. Acceptum and expēnsum as predicates with ferre and referre are book-keeping terms: as,
 - quas pecunias ferebat eis expensas (Verr. ii. 170), what sums he charged to them.
- a. A noun and a passive participle are often so united that the participle and not the noun contains the main idea: 1 as,
 - ante conditam condendamve urbem (Liv. Pref.), before the city was built or building.
 - illī lībertātem cīvium Rōmānōrum imminūtam nōn tulērunt; vōs vītam ēreptam neglegētis (Manil. 11), they did not endure the infringement of the citizens' liberty; will you disregard the destruction of their life? post hominēs nātōs (Brut. 224), since the creation of man.
 - iam ā conditā urbe (Phil. iii. 9), even from the founding of the city.
- b. The perfect participle with a noun in agreement, or in the neuter as an abstract noun, is used in the ablative with opus, need (cf. § 243. e): as,
 - opus facto est viatico (Pl. Trin. 887), there is need of laying in provision. maturato opus est (Liv. viii. 13), there is need of haste.
- c. The perfect participle with habeo (rarely with other verbs) has almost the same meaning as a perfect active, but denotes the continued effect of the action of the verb: 2 as,
 - fidem quam habent spectātam iam et diū cognitam (Div. C. 11), my fidelity, which they have proved and long known.
 - cohortes in acie lxxx. constitutas habebat (B. C. iii. 89), he had eighty cohorts stationed in line of battle.
 - nefāriōs ducēs captōs iam et comprehēnsōs tenētis (Cat. iii. 16), you have captured and hold in custody the infamous leaders, etc.
- d. A verb of effecting or the like may be used in combination with the perfect participle of a transitive verb to express the action of that verb more forcibly: as, —
- ¹ Compare the participle in indirect discourse in Greek (Goodwin's Greek Grammar, § 1588); and the English, "'T was at the Royal feast for Persia won" (Dryden), i.e. for the conquest of Persia.
- ² The perfect with have, in modern languages of Latin stock, has grown out of this use of habeo.

- praefectös suös multī mīssös fēcērunt (Verr. iii. 134), many discharged their officers (made dismissed).
- hīc trānsāctum reddet omne (Plaut. Capt. 345), he will get it all done (restore it finished).
- Note. Similarly volo (with its compounds) and cupio, with a perfect participle without esse (cf. § 288. d. note): as,
 - mē excūsātum volō (Verr. II. i. 103), I wish to be excused (I want myself excused, cf. I pray thee have me excused).
- e. With verbs denoting an action of the senses the present participle in agreement with the object is nearly equivalent to the infinitive of indirect discourse (§ 336), but expresses the action more vividly: as,
 - ut eum nēmō unquam in equō sedentem viderit (Verr. v. 27), so that no one ever saw him sitting on a horse.

4. Future Participle.

- 293. The Future Participle (except futures and venturus) is rarely used in simple agreement with a noun, except by later writers.
- a. The future participle is chiefly used with the verb esse (which is often omitted) in the active periphrastic conjugation (§ 129): as,
 - morere, Diagora, non enim in caelum adscensurus es (Tusc. i. 111), die, for you are not likely to rise to heaven.
 - spērat adolēscēns diū sē vīctūrum (Cat. Maj. 68), the young man hopes to live long (that he shall live long).
- b. By later writers and the poets the future participle is also used in simple agreement with a substantive to express:—
 - 1. Likelihood or certainty: as, -
 - ausus est rem plūs fāmae habitūram (Liv. ii. 10), he dared a thing which would have more repute.
 - 2. Purpose, intention, or readiness: as, —
 - cum leo regem invasurus incurreret (Q. C. viii. 1, 14), when a lion rushed on to attack the king.
 - sī peritūrus abīs (Æn. ii. 675), if you are going away to perish.
 - 3. Apodosis: as, --
 - dedit mihi quantum māximum potuit, datūrus amplius sī potuisset (Plin. Ep. iii. 21), he gave me as much as he could, ready to give me more if he had been able.

- c. With past tenses of esse, the future participle is often equivalent to the pluperfect subjunctive (see § 308. d).
 - 5. Gerundive (Future Passive Participle).

Note.— The participle in -dus, commonly called the Gerundive, has two distinct uses:—

- (1) Its predicate and attribute use as participle or adjective (§ 294).
- (2) Its use with the meaning of the gerund (§ 296). This may be called its gerundive use.
- 294. The Gerundive when used as a Participle or an Adjective is always passive, denoting necessity or propriety. In this use the following points are to be observed (a-d).
- a. The gerundive is sometimes used, like the present and perfect participles, in simple agreement with a noun: as,—

fortem et conservandum virum (Mil. 104), a brave man, and worthy to be preserved.

b. The most frequent use of this form is with esse in the second (passive) periphrastic conjugation (see § 129): as,—

non agitanda res erit (Verr. v. 179), will not the thing have to be agitated?

c. The neuter of the gerundive is occasionally used impersonally with an object. The object is in the case regularly governed by the verb. Thus,—

via quam nobis ingrediendum sit (Cat. Maj. 6), the way we have to enter.

Note. — This use is regular with verbs which take their object in the dative or ablative: as, —

lēgibus pārendum est, the laws must be obeyed.

- d. With verbs signifying to give, deliver, agree for, have, receive, undertake, demand, a gerundive in agreement with the object is used to express purpose: as,
 - redemptor quī columnam illam condūxerat faciendam (Div. ii. 47), the contractor who had undertaken to make that column. [The regular construction with this class of verbs.]
 - aedem Castoris habuit tuendam (Verr. II. i, 132), he had the temple of Castor to take care of.
 - naves atque onera diligenter adservanda curabat (id. v. 146), he took care that the ships and cargoes should be kept.

GERUND AND GERUNDIVE.

- 295. The Gerund expresses an action of the verb in the form of a verbal noun. As a *noun* the gerund is itself governed by other words; as a *verb* it may take an object in the proper case. Thus,
 - ars bene disserendi et vēra āc falsa dīiūdicandi (De Or. ii. 157), the art of discoursing well, and distinguishing the true and false.
- REMARK. A nominative of the gerund is supplied by the infinitive. Thus in the example above, the verbal nouns discoursing and distinguishing if used in the nominative, would be expressed by the infinitives disserere and diffidicare.
- 296. When the Gerund would have an object in the accusative, the Gerundive is generally used instead. The gerundive agrees with its noun, and takes the case which the gerund would have had: as,
 - parātiōrēs ad omnia perīcula subeunda (B. G. i. 5), readier to undergo all dangers. [Here subeunda agrees with perīcula, which is itself governed by ad. The construction with the gerund would be, ad subeundum perīcula; ad governing the gerund, and the gerund governing the accusative perīcula.]
 - exercendae memoriae grātiā (Cat. Maj. 38), for the sake of training the memory. [Here the gerund construction would be memoriam exercendī grātiā.]
 - plērīsque in rēbus gerendīs tarditās odiosa est (Phil. vi. 7), in the conducting of most business, sloth is odious.

The following examples illustrate the parallel constructions of gerund and gerundive: —

- GEN. consilium { urbem capiendi } a design of taking the city.
- DAT. dat operam { agrös colendō } he attends to tilling the fields.
- Acc. veniunt ad { mihi pārendum pācem petendam } they come { to obey me. to seek peace.
- ABL. terit tempus { scribendo epistulas } he spends time in writing letters.

REMARK. — In the gerundive construction the verbs ütor, fruor, etc., are treated like transitive verbs governing the accusative, as they do in early Latin: as, —

expetuntur divitiae ad perfruendas voluptates (Off. i. 25), riches are sought for the enjoyment of pleasures (for enjoying pleasures).

297. (RULE 65.) The Gerund and the Gerundive are used, in the oblique cases, in many of the constructions of nouns.

z. Genitive.

- 298. The Genitive of the Gerund and Gerundive is used with nouns or adjectives either as subjective or objective genitive: as,
 - neque consilii habendi neque arma capiendi spatio dato (B. G. iv. 14), time being given neither for forming plans nor for taking arms. [Objective.]
 - nē conservandae quidem patriae causā (Off. i. 159), not even for the sake of saving the country. [Originally subjective genitive.]
 - vivendi finis est optimus (Cat. Maj. 72), it is the best end of living. [Subjective.]
- NOTE. In a few phrases the Infinitive is used with nouns which ordinarily have the genitive of the Gerund or Gerundive. Thus tempus est abire, it is time to depart.
- REMARK. The genitive of the gerund or gerundive is used (especially in early and late Latin) as a predicate genitive. When so used it often expresses purpose: as,
 - quae res evertendae respublicae solent esse (Verr. iii. 132), things which generally tend to the overthrow of the commonwealth.
 - sī arborum truncī dēiciendī operis essent mīssae (B. G. iv. 17), in case trunks of trees should be sent down [with the object] of overthrowing the work. [Pred. gen. like quās suī commodī fēcerat (v. 8).]
- a. The genitive of the Gerund is occasionally limited by a noun or pronoun (especially sui) in the objective genitive instead of taking a direct object: as,
 - ēius videndī cupidus (Ter. Hec. 372), eager to see her (for a seeing of her). rēiciendī trium iūdicum potestās (Verr. ii. 77), the power of challenging three jurors (of the rejecting of three jurors).
 - sul colligendi facultas (B. G. iii. 6), the opportunity to recover themselves.

- b. In genitive constructions the Gerund and Gerundive are about equally common.
- c. The genitive of the Gerund or Gerundive is used with causa or gratia to denote purpose (see § 318).

NOTE. — This is merely a special use under the main head of § 298.

2. Dative.

299. The Dative of the Gerund and Gerundive is used after adjectives which take the dative and rarely after nouns (§ 234. a): as,—

genus armorum aptum tegendis corporibus (Liv. xxxii. 10), a sort of armor suited to the defence of the body.

- tē sociam studeō scrībendīs versibus esse (Lucr. i. 25), I desire that thou be my partner in writing verses.
- a. The dative is used in a few expressions after verbs: 2 as, diem praestitit operi faciendo (Verr. II. i, 148), he set a day for doing the work. praeesse agro colendo (Rosc. Am. 50), to take charge of cultivating the land. esse solvendo, to be able to pay (to be for paying).

Note. — This construction is a remnant of a more general use of the dative of the gerund and gerundive.

b. The dative is also used in certain legal phrases after nouns meaning officers, offices, elections, etc., to indicate the function or scope of the office, etc.: as,—

comitia consulibus rogandis (Div. i. 33), elections for nominating consuls. triumvir coloniis deducundis (Jug. 42), a triumvir for planting colonies. triumviri respublicae constituendae (title of the Triumvirate), triumvirs (a commission of three) for settling the government.

3. Accusative.

- 800. The Accusative of the Gerund and Gerundive is used after the prepositions ad inter, circa, ob (and rarely in and ante); most frequently after ad, denoting Purpose (cf. § 318. b): as,—
- ¹ The dative of the gerund and gerundive occurs most commonly after the adjectives accommodātus, aptus, ineptus, bonus, habilis, idōneus, pār, ūtilis, inūtilis. But the accusative with ad is common with most of these (cf. § 234. b).

² Such are praeesse, operam dare, diem dicere, locum capere.

mē vocās ad scrībendum (Or. 34), you summon me to write.

vīvis non ad deponendam sed ad confirmandam audāciam (Cat. i. 4), you live, not to put off, but to confirm your daring.

nactus aditūs ad ea conanda (B. C. i. 31), having found means to undertake these things.

inter agendum (Ecl. ix. 24), while driving.

Note. — The Accusative of the gerund with a preposition rarely takes a direct object, the Ablative of the gerund very rarely. The Gerundive is used instead (§ 296).

4. Ablative.

- 801. The Ablative of the Gerund and Gerundive is used (1) to express Manner, Means, Cause, etc.; (2) after Comparatives; (3) after the prepositions ab, de, ex, in, and (rarely) pro and cum: as,—
 - (1) multa pollicendo persuadet (Jug. 46), he persuades by large promises. Latīnē loquendo cuivīs pār (Brut. 128), equal to any man in speaking Latin. nūllīs virtūtis praeceptīs trādendīs (Off. i. 5), without delivering any precepts of virtue (by delivering no precepts).

his ipsis legendis (Cat. Maj. 21), by reading these very things.

- obscuram atque humilem conciendo ad se multitudinem (Liv. i. 8), calling to them a mean and obscure multitude.
- (2) nüllum officium referendā grātiā magis necessārium est (Off. i. 47), no duty is more important than repaying favors.
- (3) in rē gerendā versārī (Cat. Maj. 17), to be employed in conducting affairs.

Note. — The Ablative of the Gerund and Gerundive is also very rarely used depending on verbs and adjectives: as, —

Appius non abstitit continuando magistratum (Liv. ix. 34), Appius did not desist from continuing his magistracy.

REMARK. — The Gerund is often found co-ordinated with nominal constructions, and sometimes even in apposition with a noun: as, —

- (1) in foro, in cūriā, in amīcorum perīculīs pulsandīs (Phil. vii. 7), in the forum, in the Senate-house, in defending my friends in jeopardy.
- (2) ad res diversissimas, parendum atque imperandum (Liv. xxi. 3), for the most widely different things, obeying and commanding.

III. SUPINE.

Note. — The Supine is a verbal abstract of the fourth declension (§ 71. a), having no distinction of tense or person, and limited to two uses.

- **302.** (RULE 66.) The Former Supine (in -um) is used after verbs of *motion* to express purpose. It may take an object in the proper case. Thus,
 - quid est, Imusne sessum? etsī monitum venimus te, non flagitatum (De Or. iii. 17), how now, shall we be seated? though we have come to remind, not to entreat you.
 - vēnērunt questum iniūriās (Liv. iii. 25), they came to complain of wrongs.
- REMARK. The supine in -um is especially common with e5; and with the passive infinitive Iri forms the future infinitive passive. Thus,
 - fuere cives qui rempublicam perditum irent (Sall. Cat. 36), there were citizens who went about to ruin the republic (cf. § 258. b. Rem.).
 - non Grais servitum matribus ibo (Æn. ii. 786), I shall not go to be a slave to the Grecian dames.
 - sī scīsset sē trucīdātum īrī (Div. ii. 22), if he (Pompey) had known that he was going to be murdered. [cf. § 288. f.]
- 808. (Rule 67.) The Latter Supine (in -ū) is used only with a few adjectives, with the nouns fas, nefas, and opus, and rarely with verbs, to denote an action in reference to which the quality is asserted: as,—
 - O rem non modo visü foedam, sed etiam audītū (Phil. ii. 63), a thing not only shocking to see, but even to hear of.
 - quaerunt quid optimum factū sit (Verr. II. i, 68), they ask what is best to do. pudet dictū (Agric. 32), it is shame to tell.
- Note. The latter supine is thus in appearance an ablative of specification (\S 253), but see \S 71. a.
- REMARK. The supine in -ū is found especially with such adjectives as indicate an effect on the senses or the feelings, and those which denote ease, difficulty, and the like. But with facilis, difficilis, iūcundus, ad with the gerund is more common. Thus,
 - nec visū facilis nec dictū adfābilis ūllī (Æn. iii. 621), he is not pleasant for any man to look at or address.
 - difficilis ad distinguendum similitūdo (De Or. ii. 212), a likeness difficult to distinguish.
- With all these adjectives the poets often use the Infinitive in the same sense: as, .
 - faciles aurem praebere (Prop.), indulgent to lend an ear.
- ¹ The only latter supines in common use are audītū, dictū, factū, inventū, memorātū, nātū, vīsū. In classic use this supine is found, in all, in twenty-four verbs. It is never followed by an object-case.

CONDITIONAL SENTENCES.

Note. — The Conditional Sentence differs from other compound sentences in this, that the form of the main clause (APODOSIS) is determined in some degree by the nature of the subordinate clause (PROTASIS), upon the truth of which the whole statement depends.

Conditional Sentences may be classified as follows: -

 SIMPLE PRESENT OR PAST CONDITIONS, nothing implied as to fulfilment (§ 306).

2. FUTURE CONDITIONS:

(a. More vivid (§ 307). Two, www.)

(b. Less vivid (§ 307). Conditions Contrary

TO FACT:

(a. Present (§ 308). Conditions Contrary

(b. Past (§ 308). Conditions Conditions:

(a. Indefinite Subject (§ 309. a).

(b. Repeated Action (§ 309. b, c).

(c. Protesis Command (§ 310. b, d)

5. IMPLIED CONDITIONS:

a. Protasis
Disguised:

command (§ 310. b, c).

in Participial Expression (§ 310. a).

l. Potential Subjunctive (§ 311. a).

Omitted:

command (§ 310. b, c).

2. Subjunctive of Modesty (§ 311. b).

1. Protasis and Apodosis.

804. A complete conditional sentence consists of two clauses, the Protasis and the Apodosis.

The clause containing the *condition* is called the Protasis; the clause containing the *conclusion* is called the Apodosis: as.—

sī quī exīre volunt [PROTASIS], cōnīvēre possum [APODOSIS] (Cat. ii. 27), if any wish to depart, I can keep my eyes shut.

sī est in exsiliō [PROTASIS], quid amplius postulātis [APODOSIS] (Lig. 13), if he is in exile, what more do you ask?

NOTE.—It should be carefully noted that the Protasis is the dependent clause.

a. The Protasis is regularly introduced by the conditional particle si (IF) or one of its compounds: sin, nist, etiamsi, etsi, tametsi, decrees

tamenetsi. Any relative or concessive word, may also serve to introduce a protasis.

- b. The Apodosis is often introduced by some correlative word or phrase: as, sīo, ita, tum, eā condiciōne, etc. Thus,
 - ita enim senectūs honesta est, sī sē ipsa dēfendit (Cat. Maj. 38), on this condition is old age honorable, if it defends itself.
 - sī quidem mē amāret tum istūc prodesset (Ter. Eun. 446), if he loved me, then this would be profitable.
- c. The Apodosis is the principal clause of the conditional sentence, but may at the same time be subordinate to some other clause, and so be in the form of a Participle, an Infinitive, or a Phrase: as,
 - sepultūrā quoque prohibitūrī nī rēx humārī iūssisset (Q. C. viii. 2, 12), intending also to deprive him of burial, unless the king had ordered him to be interred.
 - quod sī praetereā nēmō sequātur, tamen sē cum sōlā decimā legione itūrum [esse] (B. G. i. 40), but if no one else would follow, he would go with the tenth legion alone.
 - sī quōs adversum proelium commovēret, hōs reperīre posse (id.), if the loss of a battle alarmed any, they might find, etc.
- NOTE. When the Apodosis itself is in Indirect Discourse, or in any dependent construction, the verb of the Protasis is regularly in the Subjunctive (as in the first two of the above examples, see § 337).
 - d. Conditions are either (1) Particular or (2) General.
- 1. A Particular Condition refers to a definite act or series of acts occurring at some definite time.
- 2. A General Condition refers to any one of a class of acts which may occur (or may have occurred) at any time.

2. Classification.

- **305.** The principal or typical Forms of conditional sentences may be exhibited as follows:
 - a. SIMPLE CONDITIONS, with nothing implied as to fulfilment.
 - 1. Present, nothing implied. Present Indicative in both clauses. sī adest, bene est, if he is [now] here, it is well.
 - 1 Cf. the Greek forms: a. 1. εἰ πράσσει τοῦτο, καλῶς ἔχει.
 - 2. εί ἔπρασσε τοῦτο, καλῶς είχεν. εί ἔπραξε τοῦτο, καλῶς ἔσχεν.
 - δ. 1. ἐὰν πράσση τοῦτο, καλῶς ἔξει.
 2. εἰ πράσσοι τοῦτο, καλῶς ἄν ἔχοι.
 - c. I. εί επρασσε τοῦτο, καλῶς αν είχεν. 2. εί επραξε τοῦτο, καλῶς αν εσχεν.
 - d. Ι, έ \dot{a} ν τις κλέπτη, κολάζεται. 2. εἴ τις κλέπτοι, ἐκολάζετο.

- Some past tense of the Indicative in 2. Past, nothing implied. both clauses.
 - sī aderat, bene erat, if he was [then] here, it was well. sī adfuit, bene fuit, if he has been here, it has been well.

 - b. FUTURE CONDITIONS (necessarily as yet unfulfilled).
 - 1. More vivid.
 - (a) Future Indicative in both clauses.
 - sī aderit, bene erit, if he is (shall be) here, it will be well.
- (\$) Future Perfect Indicative in protasis, Future Indicative in apodosis (condition thought of as completed before conclusion begins).
 - sī adfuerit, bene erit, if he is (shall have been) here, it will [then] be well.
 - Less vivid.
 - (a) Present Subjunctive in both clauses.
 - sī adsit, bene sit, if he should be here it would be well.
- (β) Perfect Subjunctive in protessis, Present Subjunctive in apodosis (condition thought of as completed before conclusion begins).
 - sī adfuerit, bene sit, if he should be (should have been) here, it would [then] be well.
 - c. CONDITIONS CONTRARY TO FACT.
 - 1. Present contrary to fact. Imperfect Subjunctive in both clauses.
 - sī adesset, bene esset, if he were [now] here, it would be well (but he is NOT here).
 - 2. Past, contrary to fact. Pluperfect Subjunctive in both clauses.
 - sī adfuisset, bene fuisset, if he had [then] been here, it would have been well (but he was NOT here).
- d. GENERAL CONDITIONS. Usually not differing in form from Particular Conditions (a, b, c); but sometimes distinguished in the cases following: -
 - 1. Present General Condition (Indefinite Time).
- (a) Present Subjunctive second person singular in protasis, Present Indicative in anodosis.
 - sī hoc dīcās, crēditur, if any one [ever] says this, it is [always] believed.
 - (B) Perfect Indicative in protasis, Present in apodosis.
 - sī quid dīxit, crēditur, if he [ever] says anything, it is [always] believed.
 - 2. Past General Condition (Repeated Action in Past Time).

- (a) Imperfect Subjunctive in protasis, Imperfect Indicative in apodosis.
 - sī quid dīceret, crēdēbātur, if he [ever] said anything it was [always] believed (= whatever he said was always believed).
 - (β) Pluperfect Indicative in protasis, Imperfect in apodosis. sī quid dīxerat, crēdēbātur, if he [ever] said anything, it was believed.

REMARK. — The use of tenses in Protasis is very loose in English. Thus, if he is alive now is a present condition, to be expressed in Latin by the Present Indicative; if he is alive next year is a future condition, expressed in Latin by the Future Indicative. Again, if he were here now is a present condition contrary to fact, and would be expressed by the Imperfect Subjunctive; if he were to see me thus is a future condition less vivid, to be expressed by the Present Subjunctive; and so, too, if you advised him, he would attend may be future less vivid.

3. Present and Past Conditions. - Nothing Implied.

- 806. (RULE 73.) In the statement of present and past conditions whose falsity is NOT implied, the present and past tenses of the Indicative are used in both Protasis and Apodosis. Thus,
 - sī tū exercitusque valētis, bene est (Fam. v. 2), if you and the army are well, it is well. [Present Condition.]
 - sī quī māgnīs ingenis in eō genere exstitērunt, nōn satis Graecōrum glōriae respondērunt (Tusc. i. 3), if any men have appeared of great genius in that branch, they have failed to compete with the glory of the Greeks. [Past Condition.]
 - accēpī Rōmā sine epistulā tuā fasciculum litterārum in quō sī modo valuistī et Rōmae fuistī Philotimī dūcō esse culpam nōn tuam (Att. v. 17), I have received from Rome a bundle of letters without any from you, which, if you have been well and at Rome, I take to be the fault of Philotimus, not yours. [Mixed: Past condition and Present conclusion.]
 - quas litteras, sī Romae es, vidēbis putēsne reddendas (Att. v. 18), as to this letter, if you are at Rome, you will see whether in your opinion it ought to be delivered. [Mixed: Present and Future.]
 - sī nēmō impetrāvit adroganter rogō (Ligar. 30), if no one has succeeded in obtaining it, my request is presumptuous. [Past and Present.]
- a. In these conditions, the apodosis need not always be in the Indicative, but may assume any form, according to the sense. Thus, —

fuerit hoc censoris, sī iūdicābat (Div. i. 29), suppose it was the censor's duty, if he judged it false. [Hortatory Subjunctive.]

sī nōndum satis cernitis, recordāminī (Milo, 61), if you do not yet see clearly, recollect. [Imperative.]

sī quid habēs certius, velim scīre (Att. iv. 10), if you have any trustworthy information, I should like to know it. [Subj. of Modesty, § 311. b.]

Note. — Although the form of these conditions does not imply anything as to their truth, the sense or context may have some such implication: as, — nolite, si in nostro omnium fletu nullam lacrimam aspexistis Milonis, how minus en parcere (Milo, 92), do not, if amid the weeping of us all you have seen no tear [in the eyes] of Milo, spare him the less for that.

In this passage a cause is put by the speaker in the form of a noncommittal condition. His hearers are to draw the inference for themselves.

4. Future Conditions.

- 307. Future Conditions may be more or less vivid.
- 1. In a more vivid future condition the protasis makes a distinct supposition of a future case, the apodosis expressing what will be the result.
- 2. In a less vivid future condition, the supposition is less distinct, the apodosis expressing what would be the result in the case supposed.
- a. In the more vivid future condition the Future Indicative is used in both protasis and apodosis: as,—

sanabimur sī volēmus (Tusc. iii. 13), we shall be healed if we wish.

NOTE. — In English the protasis is usually expressed by the Present Indicative, rarely by the future with SHALL. Sometimes in Latin a condition of this kind has the Present Indicative in the protasis: as, —

sī pereō hominum manibus periisse iuvābit (Æn. iii. 606), if I perish, it will be pleasant to have perished at the hands of men.

b. In the less vivid future condition the Present Subjunctive is used in both protasis and apodosis: as,—

haec sī tēcum patria loquātur, nonne impetrāre dēbeat (Cat. i. 19), if your country should thus speak with thee, ought she not to prevail?

REMARK. — The present subjunctive sometimes stands in protasis with the future in apodosis from a change in the point of view of the speaker.

c. If the conditional act is regarded as completed before that of the apodosis begins, the Future Perfect is substituted for the Future Indicative in protasis, and the Perfect Subjunctive for the Present Subjunctive: as, -

sī non fēceris, īgnoscam (Fam. v. 19), if you do not do it, I will excuse you.

REMARK. — The Future Perfect is very often used in the apodosis of a future condition: as, -

vehementer mihi grātum fēceris, sī hunc adolēscentem hūmānitāte tuā comprehenderis (Fam. xiii. 15), you will do (will have done) me a great favor, if you receive this young man with your usual courtesy.

d. Any form implying future time may stand in the apodosis of a future condition. So the Imperative, the participles in -dus and -rus, and verbs of necessity, possibility, and the like: as, -

- sī mē praecēperit fātum, võs mandāsse memento, if fate cuts me off too soon, do you remember that I ordered this (Q. C. ix. 6, 26).
- nisi oculīs vīderitis īnsidiās Milonī ā Clodio factās, nec deprecātūrī sumus nec postulătūrī (Milo, 6), unless you see with your own eyes the plots laid against Milo by Clodius, I shall neither beg nor demand, etc. non possum istum accūsare sī cupiam (Verr. iv. 87), I cannot accuse him if I should desire to.
- e. Rarely the Perfect Indicative is used in apodosis with a Present or even a Future in protasis, to represent the conclusion rhetorically as already accomplished: as,
 - sī hoc bene fīxum in animo est, vīcistis (Liv. xxi. 44), if this is well fixed in your minds, you have conquered. [For you will have conquered.] sī eundem [animum] habueritis, vīcimus (id. 43), if you shall have kept the same spirit, we have conquered.
- f. A future condition is frequently thrown back into past time, without implying that it is contrary to fact (§ 308). In such cases the Imperfect or Pluperfect Subjunctive may be used: as, -

non poterat nisi vellet (B. C. iii, 44), was not able unless he wished. tumulus appāruit . . . sī lūce palam īrētur hostis praeventūrus erat (Liv. xxii. 24), a hill appeared . . . if they should go openly by light, the enemy would prevent. [The first two appear like ind. disc., but are not. An observer describing the situations as present ones would say potest $s\bar{s}$ velit (etc., see d), and no ind. disc. would be thought of.

5. Conditions Contrary to Fact.

808. (RULE 73.3.) In the statement of a supposition known to be false, the Imperfect and Pluperfect Subjunctive are used in both Protasis and Apodosis. The imperfect refers to Present Time, the pluperfect to Past: as,—

quas si exsequi nequirem, tamen me lectulus oblectaret meus (Cat. Maj. 38), if I could not [now] follow this (an active life), yet my couch would afford me pleasure. [Present.]

nisi tū āmīsissēs, nunquam tecēpissem (id. 11), unless you had lost it, I should not have recovered it. [Past.]

(a. In conditions contrary to fact the Imperfect often refers to past time, both in protasis and apodosis, especially when a repeated or continued action is denoted, or when the condition if true would still exist: as,—

hīc sī mentis esset suae, ausus esset ēdūcere exercitum (Pis. 50), if he were of sane mind, would he have dared to lead out the army?

[Here esset denotes a continued state, past as well as present.]

b. In the apodosis of a condition contrary to fact the Past tenses of the Indicative may be used to express what was *intended*, or *likely*, or already begun: as,—

sī licitum esset mātrēs veniēbant (Verr. v. 129), the mothers were coming if it had been allowed (see § 305. c. 2).

iam tūta tenēbam, nī gēns crūdēlis ferrō invāsisset (Æn. vi. 358), I was just reaching a place of safety, had not the fierce people attacked me.

REMARK. — In this use, the imperfect indicative corresponds in time to the imperfect subjunctive, and the perfect or pluperfect indicative to the pluperfect subjunctive.

c. Verbs and expressions denoting necessity, propriety, possibility, duty, when used in the Apodosis of a condition contrary to fact are regularly put in the Imperfect, Perfect, or Pluperfect Indicative instead of the Subjunctive: as,—

sī ita putāsset certē optābilius Milonī fuit (Mil. 31), if he had thought so, surely it would have been preferable for Milo.

si Romae privatus esset hoc tempore, tamen is erat deligendus (Manil. 50), if he (Pompey) were at this time a private citizen at Rome, yet he ought to be appointed.

- NOTE I. In this construction it is only the thing necessary (etc.) that is conditioned, and not the necessity itself. If the necessity itself is conditioned, the Subjunctive is used as with other verbs. The difference is often imperceptible, but may be seen in the following example:
 - quid facere potuissem nisi tum consul fuissem? consul autem esse qui potui nisi eum vitae cursum tenuissem a pueritia (Rep. i. 10), what could I have done if I had not then been consul; and how could I have been consul if I had not followed that course of life from boyhood?
 - Note 2. This construction is sometimes carried further in poetry: as, sī non alium iactāret odorem, laurus erat (Georg. ii. 133), it were a laurel, but for giving out a different odor.
- d. The participle in -urus with eram or fui may take the place of an Imperfect or Pluperfect Subjunctive in the Apodosis of a condition contrary to fact: as,
 - quid enim futūrum fuit [= fuisset], sī ... (Liv. ii. 1), what would have happened if, etc.
 - neque ambigitur quin . . . id factūrus fuerit, sī . . . (id.), nor is there any question he would have done it if, etc. [Direct: fēcisset.]
- NOTE. This construction is regularly used when the apodosis is itself a dependent clause requiring the subjunctive, and also in Indirect Discourse. In Indirect Discourse fuisse replaces eram or fui (see § 337).
- e. The Present and Perfect subjunctive are sometimes used in poetry in the protasis and apodosis of conditions contrary to fact: as,
 - nī comes admoneat, inruat (Æn. vi. 293), had not his companion warned him, he would have rushed on.
 - nī faciat maria āc terrās ferant (id. i. 58), unless he did this, they would bear away sea and land.
- Note. This is a remnant of an old construction. Its use puts the condition in a vivid form, as if possible at any moment in the future though not now true.

6. General Conditions.

- **309.** General Conditions (§ 304. d) have usually the same forms as Particular Conditions. But they are sometimes distinguished in the following three cases:—
- (a. The Subjunctive is sometimes used in the second person singular, to denote the act of an Indefinite Subject (you = any one). Here the Indicative of a general truth may stand in the apodosis: as,—

- mens prope uti ferrum est: sī exerceas conteritur; nisi exerceas, rūbīginem contrahit (Cato de Mor.), the mind is very like iron: if you use it, it wears away; if you don't use it, it gathers rust.
- b. In later writers (not in Cicero), the Imperfect and Pluperfect Subjunctive are used in protasis, with the Imperfect Indicative in apodosis, to state a repeated or customary action in past time: as,
 - accūsātorēs, sī facultās incideret, poenīs adficiēbantur (Tac. A. vi. 30), the accusers, whenever opportunity offered, were visited with punishment.
- ⟨ c. In a general condition in present time, the protasis often takes
 the Perfect, and the apodosis the Present Indicative. For past time,
 the Pluperfect is used in the protasis, and the Imperfect in the apodosis.
 Thus, —
 .
 - sī quōs aliquā membrorum parte inūtilēs notāvērunt, necārī iubent (Q. C. ix. 1, 25), if they [ever] mark any infirm in any part of their limbs, they [always] order them to be put to death. [Present.]
 - sī ā persequendō hostēs dēterrēre nequīverant ab tergō circumveniēbant (Jug. 50), if [ever] they were unable to prevent the enemy from pursuing, they [always] surrounded them in the rear. [Past.]
- d. In all other cases, general suppositions including those introduced by Indefinite Relatives are not distinguished in form from Particular Conditions.

7. Condition Disguised.

- **810.** In many sentences properly conditional, the Protasis is not expressed by a conditional clause, but is stated in some other form of words or implied in the nature of the thought. Thus, —
- (a. The condition may be implied in a Clause or in a Participle, Noun, Adverb, or some other word or phrase. Thus,
 - facile me paterer illo ipso iudice quaerente pro Sex. Roscio dicere (Rosc. Am. 85), I should readily allow myself to speak for Roscius if that very judge were conducting the trial. [Present contrary to fact: sī quaereret, etc.]
 - nülla alia gēns tantā möle clādis non obruta esset (Liv. xxii. 54), there is no other people that would not have been crushed by such a weight of disaster. [Past contrary to fact: sī alia fuisset.]
 - nēmō unquam sine māgnā spē immortālitātis, sē prō patriā offerret ad mortem (Tusc. i. 32), no one, without great hope of immortality, would ever expose himself to death for his country. [Present contrary to fact: nisi māgnam spem habēret.]

(b. The condition may be contained in a Wish (optative subjunctive), or expressed as an Exhortation or Command (hortatory subjunctive, or imperative): as,—

utinam quidem fuissem! molestus nobis non esset (Fam. xii. 3), I wish I had been [chief]: he would not now be troubling us (i.e. if I had been). [Optative Subjunctive.]

NOTE. — The so-called *concessive subjunctive* with ut and ne often has the force of a protasis (§ 313. a): as, —

ut enim rationem Plato nullam afferret, ipsa auctoritate me frangeret (Tusc. i. 49), even if Plato gave no reason, [still] he would, etc.

c. Rarely the condition is in an independent clause, as, -

rīdēs: māiōre cachinnō concutitur (Juv. iii. 100), you laugh; he shakes with louder laughter (= if you laugh, he shakes).

d. The condition is often contained in a Relative Clause (§ 316). Remark. — For the use of a participle as Apodosis, see § 304. c.

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8. Condition Omitted.

811. The Protasis is often wholly omitted, but may be inferred from the course of the argument. Thus,—

poterat Sextilius impūne negāre: quis enim redargueret (Fin. ii. 55), Sextilius might have denied with impunity; for who would prove him wrong (if he had).

REMARK. — Under this head apparently belongs the POTENTIAL SUB-IUNCTIVE.

I. POTENTIAL SUBJUNCTIVE.

(a. (RULE 72.) The Potential Subjunctive is used to denote an action not as <u>actually performed</u>, but as <u>possible</u>.

In this use the Present and the Perfect refer without distinction to the immediate future; the Imperfect to past time. The second person is common, indicating an Indefinite Subject (cf. § 309. a). Thus,—

hīc quaerat quispiam (N. D. ii. 133), here some one may ask. ut aliquis fortasse dixerit (Off. iii. 97), as one may perhaps say.

tum in lecto quoque videres susurros (Hor. Sat. ii. 8. 77), then on each couch you might hear whisperings.

NOTE 1. — The Present is sometimes used for the Imperfect: as, — migrantīs cernās (Æn. iv. 401), you might have seen them moving.

Note 2.— The Pluperfect is rare. Its place is supplied by the Imperfect: as,—

putăssēs ēius lūctūs aliquem finem esse dēbēre (Sen. Dial. 6, 13), you would have thought there ought to be some end to his grief.

NOTE 3.— The subjunctive with forsitan does not differ in meaning from the Potential Subjunctive, but is an Indirect Question (§ 334. g): as,—

forsitan haec illī mīrentur (Verr. iv. 124), they may perchance marvel at these things.

Remark. — The potential subjunctive is strictly an apodosis with omitted protasis, sometimes easily supplied, but often not present to the mind of the speaker. So also the Subjunctive of Modesty (b, below).

II. SUBJUNCTIVE OF MODESTY.

b. The Subjunctive is used in cautious, modest, or hypothetical statements (coniunctivus modestiae). This use is especially common in a polite wish, with velim or vellem. Thus,—

pace tuā dīxerim (Mil. 103), I would say by your leave.
tū velim sīc exīstimēs (Fam. xii. 6). I should like you to think so.
vix ausim crēdere (Ov. M. vi. 561), I should hardly dare believe.
vellem adesset M. Antōnius (Phil. i. 16), I could wish Antony were here.
[Here vellem implies an unfulfilled wish in present time; volō or nolō would express a peremptory wish.]

III. VERBS OF NECESSITY.

c. The Indicative of verbs signifying necessity, propriety, and the like, may be used in the apodosis of implied conditions, either future or contrary to fact: as,—

longum est ea dicere, sed . . . (Sest. 12), it would be tedious to tell, etc. [Future.]

illud erat aptius, aecum cuique concēdere (Fin. iv. 2), it would be more fitting to yield each one his rights.

quanto melius fuerat (Off. iii. 94), how much better it would have been.

REMARK. — Notice that, in this construction, the Imperfect indicative refers to present time; the Pluperfect to simply past time, like the Perfect. Thus oportebat means it ought to be [now], but is not; oporturat means it ought to have been, but was not.

Note. — In many cases it is impossible to say whether a protasis was present to the mind of the speaker or not.

g. Complex Conditions.

d. Either the protasis or the apodosis may be a complex idea in which the main statement is made with expressed or implied qualifications. In such cases the true logical relation of the parts is sometimes disguised: as,—

sī quis hōrum dīxisset ... sī verbum dē rēpūblicā fēcisset ... multa plūra dīxisse quam dīxisset putārētur (Rosc. Am. 2), if any of these had spoken, in case he had said a word about politics, he would be thought to have said much more than he did say. [Here the apodosis of dīxisset is the whole of the following statement (sī ... putārētur), which is itself conditioned by a protasis of its own: sī verbum, etc.]. quod sī in hōc mundō fierī sine deō nōn potuit nē in sphaerā quidem eōsdem mōtūs sine dīvīnō ingeniō potuisset imitārī (Tusc. i. 63) now if that cannot be done in this universe without divine agency, no more could [Archimedes] in his orrery have imitated the same revolutions without divine genius. [Here sī potuit (a protasis with nothing implied) has for its apodosis the whole clause which follows, but potuisset has a contrary-to-fact protasis of its own implied in sine . . . ingeniō.]

10. Particles of Comparison (Conclusion Omitted).

812. The particles of Comparison — tamouam tamouam si, quast, ācsi, utsi, volutsi volut, and poetic con (all meaning as if), and quam si (than if) — take the Present or Perfect Subjunctive, unless these are changed by the sequence of tenses. Thus, —

tamquam clausa sit Asia (Fam. xii. 9), as if Asia were closed.

ita hos [honores] petunt, quasi honeste vixerint (Jug. 85), they seek them (offices) just as if they had lived honorably.

velut sī coram adesset (B. G. i. 32), as if he were present in person. ceu cetera nusquam bella forent (Æn. ii. 438), as if there were no fighting elsewhere.

magis quam sī domī essēs (Att. vii. 4), more than if you were at home.

REMARK. — The English idiom would lead us to expect the Imperfect and Pluperfect Subjunctive with these particles; but the point of view is different in the two languages.

11. Concessive Clauses.

- 818. The particles of Concession (meaning although, granting that) are: quamquam quamlibet, quamvis quantumvis, ut, no, cum, licet, etsi, tametsi, etiamsi.
- a. Quamvis, quatumvis, quamlibet ut, and no take the Subjunctive (§ 266. c): as,
 - quamvis ipsi înfantes sint, tamen . . . (Or. 76), however incapable of speaking they themselves may be, yet, etc.
 - ut neminem alium rogasset (Mil. 46), even if he had asked no other.
- b. Licet (properly a verb) takes a Substantive clause in the Subjunctive (§ 331. c): as,—

licet omnës in më terrorës periculaque impendeant (Rosc. Am. 31), though all terrors and perils should menace me.

NOTE. — The subjunctive with licet is by the sequence of tenses necessarily limited to the Present and Perfect tenses.

- c. Etsi, etiamsi, tametsi, even if, take the same constructions as si (§ 305): as,
 - etsī abest mātūritās (Fam. vi. 184), though ripeness of age is wanting. etsī nihil aliud abstulissētis (Sull. 90), even if you had taken away nothing else.
 - etiamsī quod scrībās non habēbis, scrībito tamen (Fam. xvi. 26), even if you [shall] have nothing to write, still write.
 - d. Cum concessive takes the Subjenctive (see § 326): as, —
 - cum mihi non omnîno excidisset (Fam. v. 13, 2), though it had not entirely vanished [from my mind].
- c. Quamquam introduces an admitted fact and takes the Indicative: as,
 - omnibus quamquam ruit ipse suīs clādibus pestem dēnūntiat (Phil. xiv. 8), though he is breaking down under his disasters, still he threatens all with destruction.
- f. Quamquam more commonly means and yet, introducing a correction in the indicative: as,
 - quamquam haec quidem tolerābilia vidēbantur, etsī, etc. (Mil. 76), and yet these, in truth, seemed now bearable, though, etc.

g. The poets and later writers frequently use quamvis and quamquam like etsi, connecting them with the Indicative or the Subjunctive, according to the nature of the condition. Thus,—

quamquam movērētur (Liv. xxxvi. 34), although he was moved.

Polliō amat nostram, quamvīs est rūstica, mūsam (Ecl. iii. 84), Pollio loves my muse, though she is rustic.

Note. — Even Cicero occasionally uses quamquam with the Subjunctive : as, —

- quamquam ne id quidem suspicionem coitionis habuerit (Planc. 53), though not even that raised any suspicion of a coalition.
- h. The Relative pronoun qui is often used with the Subjunctive to express concession (see \S 320. e).
- i. Concession is often expressed by the Hortatory Subjunctive without a particle (§ 266): as,
 - sit clārus Scīpīo, ōrnētur eximiā laude Āfricānus, habeātur vir ēgregius Paullus . . . erit profectō inter hōrum laudēs aliquid locī nostrae glōriae (Cat. iv. 21), let Scipio be renowned, let Africanus be honored with especial praise, let Paulus be regarded as a remarkable man, [still] there will surely be some room for my glory amid the praises of these men.

12. Proviso.

814. (Rule 74.) Dum, modo, dummodo, and tantum, introducing a Proviso, take the Subjunctive: as,—

öderint dum metuant (Off. i. 97), let them hate, if only they fear.

valetudo modo bona sit (Brut. 64), provided the health is good.

- dummodo inter me atque te murus intersit (Cat. i. 10), provided only the wall (of the city) is between us.
- a. In a negative proviso ne is used, with or without modo, etc.: as,
 - modo në sit ex pecudum genere (Off. i. 105), provided [in pleasure] he be not of the herd of cattle.
 - id faciat saepe, dum ne lassus fiat (Cato R. R. v. 4), let him do this often, provided he does not get tired.
 - dummodo ea (sevēritās) ne varietur (Q. Fr. i. 1, 20), provided only it (strictness) be not allowed to swerve.

tantum në noceat (Ov. M. ix. 21), only let it do no harm.

- b. The Hortatory Subjunctive without a particle sometimes expresses a proviso (see \S 266. d): as,
 - sint Maecēnātēs, non deerunt, Flacce, Maronēs (Mart. viii. 56, 5), so there be Macenases, Virgils will not be lacking.
 - 13. Use of $\delta \bar{\imath}$ and its Compounds.
- 815. The uses of some of the more common Conditional Particles may be stated as follows:—
- Ca. 1. Si is used for aftirmative, nisi (ni) and si non for negative conditions. With nisi (generally unless) the apodosis is stated as universally true except in the single case supposed, in which case it is (impliedly) not true. Thus,
 - nisi Conon adest maereo, unless Conon is here, I mourn (i.e. I am always in a state of grief except in the single case of Conon's presence, in which case I am not).

With si non (if not) the apodosis is only stated as true in the (negative) case supposed, but as to other cases no statement is made. Thus.—

- sī Conōn nōn adest maereō, if Conon is not here I mourn (i.e. I mourn in the single case of Conon's absence, nothing being said as to other cases in which I may or may not mourn).
- 2. Ni is an old form surviving in a few conventional phrases, and reappearing in poets and later writers.

Sometimes nisi si, except if, unless, occurs: as, -

- noli putare me ad quemquam longiores epistulas scribere, nisi si quis ad me plura scripsit (Fam. xiv. 2), except in case one writes more to me.
- b. Nisi vērō and nisi forte regularly introduce an objection or exception ironically, and take the Indicative: as,
 - nisi vērō L. Caesar crūdēlior vīsus est (Cat. 1v. 13), unless, indeed, L. Casar seemed too cruel.
- NOTE. This is the regular way of introducing a reductio ad absurdum in Latin. Nisi alone is sometimes used in this sense: as,
 - nisi unum hoc faciam ut in puteo cenam coquant (Plaut. Aul. 365), unless I do this one thing, [make them] cook dinner in the well.
- c. Sive (seu) . . . sive (seu), whether . . . or, introduce a condition in the form of an alternative. They may be used with any form of condition, or with different forms in the two members. Often also they are used without a verb. Thus, —

nam illö locö libentissimë soleö ütī, sīve quid mēcum ipse cögitö, sīve quid aut scrībō aut legō (De Leg. ii. 1), for I enjoy myself most in that place, whether I am thinking by myself or am either writing or reading.

Note. — Sive . . . seu and seu . . . sive are late or poetic.

١i

DEPENDENT CONSTRUCTIONS.

I. RELATIVE CLAUSES.

Dependent Relative Clauses may be thus classified: -

- 1. Conditional Relative Clauses (§ 316).
- 2. Clauses of Purpose (Final Clauses) (§ 317).
- 3. Clauses of CHARACTERISTIC, including
 - a. Simple Result (Consecutive Clauses) (§ 319).
 - Clauses of Characteristic (including cause and hindrance) (§§ 320, 321).
 - c. Clauses of Time (§§ 322 ff.).

1. Conditional Relative Clauses.

- 816. A clause introduced by a Relative Pronoun or Relative Adverb may be treated as a conditional clause and take the constructions of Protasis (§ 305): as,
 - quī enim vitiīs modum apponit, is partem suscipit vitiorum (Tusc. iv. 42), he who [only] sets a limit to faults, takes up the side of the faults. [= sī quis apponit.]
 - quod quī faciet, non aegritūdine sõlum vacābit, sed, etc. (Tusc. iv. 38), and he who does [shall do] this, will be free not only, etc. [=sī quis faciet.]
 - philosophia, cui qui păreat, omne tempus aetătis sine molestia possit degere (Cat. Maj. 2), philosophy, which IF any one should obey, he could spend his whole life without vexation. [=sī quis păreat.]
 - quaecumque causa võs hüc attulisset, laetārer (De Or. ii. 15), I should be glad, whatever cause had brought you here (i.e. if any other, as well as the one which did). [=sī...attulisset.]

NOTE. — The relative in this construction is always Indefinite in meaning, and more commonly in form.

a. The special constructions of General Conditions are sometimes found in Conditional Relative Clauses: viz.,—

- 1. The Second Person Singular Subjunctive in the protasis with the Indicative of a general truth in the apodosis (§ 309. a): as,—bonus segnior fit, ubi neglegās (Jug. 31, 28), a good man becomes less diligent when you don't watch him.
- 2. In later writers the Imperfect or Pluperfect Subjunctive in the protasis and the Imperfect Indicative in the apodosis: as,
 - quocumque se intulisset, victoriam secum trahebat (Liv. vi. 8), wherever he advanced, he carried victory with him.
- 3. The Perfect or Pluperfect Indicative in the protasis and the Present or Imperfect Indicative in the apodosis (§ 309. c): as,
 - cum ad villam vēnī, hōc ipsum nihil agere mē dēlectat (De Or. ii. 24), whenever I come to the villa, this very doing nothing delights me (whenever I have come, etc.). [Present General Condition.]
 - cum rosam viderat, tum incipere vēr arbitrābātur (Verr. v. 27), whenever he saw (had seen) a rose, then he thought spring was beginning. [Past General Condition.]

. 2. Clauses of Purpose.

317. (Rule 75.) A clause expressing purpose is called a Final Clause.

Final clauses take the Subjunctive introduced by ut (uti), negative no (ut no), or by a Relative pronoun or adverb.

They may be divided into Pure, Relative, and Substantive.

- 1. Pure Clauses of Purpose are introduced by ut (uti) or nē. They express the purpose of the main verb in the form of a modifying clause.
- 2. Relative Clauses of Purpose are introduced by the Relative pronoun qui, or by the Relative adverbs ubi, unde, quo, etc. The antecedent is expressed or implied in the main clause.
- 3. Substantive Clauses of Purpose are introduced by ut (uti), negative no. They differ from Pure Final Clauses in having the construction of a substantive. (For Substantive Clauses of Purpose, see § 331.)

Examples of Pure and Relative clauses of purpose are -

- ab arātrō abdūxērunt Cincinnātum, ut dictātor esset (Fin. ii. 12), they brought Cincinnatus from the plough shat he might be dictator.
- ne qua eius adventūs procul significatio fiat (B. G. vi. 29), that no sign of his arrival may be made at a distance.
- ut në sit impune (Mil. 31), that it be not with impunity.
- V scrībēbat ōrātiōnēs quās alii dīcerent (Brut. 206), he wrote speeches for other men to deliver.
- eō exstinctō fore unde discerem nēminem (Cat. Maj. 12), that when he was dead there would be nobody from whom (whence) I could learn.
- Note. The Relative in this construction is equivalent to ut with the corresponding demonstrative. Thus qui = ut is (etc.), ubi = ut ibi, and so on (cf. § 319, note).
- a. Sometimes the relative or conjunction has a correlative in the main clause: as,
 - lēgibus idcirco omnēs servīmus, ut līberī esse possīmus (Clu. 146), for this reason we are all subject to the laws, that we may be free.
 - eō cōnsiliō . . . ut (regularly), with this design, that, etc.
 - eā causā . . . nē, for this reason, lest, etc.
- b. The ablative quō (= ut eō) is used as a conjunction in final clauses which contain a comparative: as,
 - libertäte usus est, quo impunius dicax esset (Quinct. 11), he took advantage of liberty, to bluster with more impunity (by which the more).
 - Note 1.— So quōminus (= ut eō minus) introduces a subjunctive clause after verbs of hindering (see § 331. e).
 - NOTE 2. Occasionally quō introduces final clauses which do not contain a comparative: as,
 - quo sibi (exercitum) fidum faceret (Sall. Cat. 11), in order to make the army devoted to himself.
 - c. The Principal clause, on which a final clause depends, is often to be supplied from the context. Thus,
 - āc nē longum sit . . . iūssimus (Cat. iii. 10), and, not to be tedious, we ordered, etc. [Strictly, in order not to be tedious, I say, we ordered.] sed ut eodem revertar, causa haec fuit timoris (Fam. vi. 7, 3), but, to return to the same point, this was the cause of fear.
 - REMARK. By a similar ellipsis the subjunctive is used with nedum (sometimes ne), still less, not to mention that: as,
 - nēdum . . . salvī esse possīmus (Clu. 95), much less could we be safe.
 - nēdum istī... non statim conquisītūrī sint aliquid sceleris et flāgitī (Leg. Ag. ii. 97), far more will they hunt up at once some sort of crime and scandal.

quippe secundae res sapientium animos fatigant; ne illi corruptis moribus victoriae temperarent (Sall. Cat. 11), for prosperity overmasters the souls, even of the wise; much less did they with their corrupt morals put any check on victory.

Note. — With nedum the verb itself is often omitted: as, —

aptius hūmānitātī tuae quam tota Peloponnēsus nēdum Patrae (Fam. vii. 28, 1), fitter for your refinement than all Peloponnesus, to say nothing of Patra.

REMARK. — Clauses of Purpose are sometimes rendered in English by that or in order that, with may or might; but more frequently by the Infinitive with TO: as, —

vēnī ut vidērem, I came to see (that I might see).

318. The Purpose of an action is expressed in Latin in various ways; but never (except rarely in poetry) by the simple Infinitive as in English (§ 273).

The sentence, they came to seek peace, may be rendered—

- (1) vēnērunt ut pācem peterent. [Final clause with ut (§ 317).]
- (2) vēnērunt quī pācem peterent. (Final clause with Relative (§ 317).]
- (3) [vēnēfunt ad petendum pācem.] (Not found with transitive verbs (§ 300. note), but cf. ad pārendum senātuī.) [Gerund with ad (§ 300).]
- (4) vēnērunt ad petendam pācem. [Gerundive with ad (§ 300).]
- (5) vēnērunt pācem petendī causā (grātiā). [Gen. of Gerund with causā or grātiā (§ 298. c).]
- (6) vēnērunt pācis petendae causā (grātiā). [Gen. of Gerundive with causā (§ 298. c).]
- (7) vēnērunt pācem petītūrī. [Future participle (§ 293. b): not in Cicero.]
- (8) vēnērunt pācem petītum. [Former supine (§ 302).]

These forms are not used indifferently, but —

a. The usual way of expressing purpose is by ut (negatively nē), unless the purpose is closely connected with some one word, in which case a relative is more common. Thus.—

Arria gladium dedit marītō ut sē interficeret, Arria gave her husband a sword to kill himself (that he might kill himself).

Arria gladium dedit marītō quō sē interficeret, Arria gave her husband a sword to kill himself WITH (with which he might, etc.).

b. The Gerund and Gerundive constructions of purpose are usually limited to short expressions, where the literal translation of the

phrase, though not the English idiom, is nevertheless not harsh or strange.

- c. The Supine is used to express purpose only with verbs of motion, and in a few idiomatic expressions (§ 302).
- d. The Future Participle used to express purpose is a late construction (§ 293. b).

NOTE. — The use of the Subjunctive to express Result comes from its use in Clauses of Characteristic.

319. (RULE 76.) A clause that expresses Result is called a Consecutive Clause.

Consecutive Clauses take the Subjunctive introduced by ut, so that (negative, ut non), or by a Relative (pronoun or adverb).

They may be divided into Pure, Relative, and Substantive (cf. § 317).

1. Pure Clauses of Result are introduced by ut or ut non. They express the result of the main verb in the form of a modifying clause.

- C2. Relative Clauses of Result are introduced by the Relative pronoun qui, or by the Relative adverbs ubi, unde, quo, etc. The antecedent is expressed or implied in the main clause.
- (3. Substantive Clauses of Result are introduced by ut or ut non. They differ from Pure consecutive clauses in having the construction of a substantive. (For Substantive Clauses of Result, see § 332.)

Examples of Pure and Relative Clauses of Result are —

tanta vis probitātis est ut eam in hoste diligāmus (Læl. 29), so great is the power of goodness that we love it even in an enemy.

nam est innocentia affectio talis animi, quae nocest nemini (Tusc. iii. 16), for innocence is such a quality of mind as to do harm to no one.

nulla est celeritas quae possit cum animi celeritate contendere (Tusc. i. 43), there is no swiftness which can compare, etc.

NOTE. — The Relative in this construction is equivalent to ut with the corresponding demonstrative. Thus, qui = ut is (etc.), ubi = ut ibi, and so on (cf. § 317. note).

REMARK. — Clauses of Result are often introduced by such correlative words as tam, tālis, tantus, ita, sīc, adeō, usque eō, which belong to the main clause.

it relative craws with the Suby to used to indication characteristic of the introduct where there is no 276 DEPENDENT CONSTRUCTIONS. [§ 319. , dea of resulta. A negative result is regularly expressed by ut or qui with non, nēmo, and similar negatives (not nē). Thus. multīs gravibusque vulneribus confectus ut iam se sustinere non posset (B. G. ii. 25), used up with many severe wounds so that he could no longer stand. nēmo est tam senex qui sē annum non putet posse vivere (Cat. Maj. 24), nobody is so ald a not to think that he can live a year. Note. - When the result implies an effect intended (not a simple purpose), ut ne or ne is sometimes used as being less positive than ut non: as, hibrun dita corrigas ne mihi noceat (Fam. vi. 7, 6), correct the book so that it may not hurt me. Frequently a clause of result is used in a restrictive sense, and amounts to a Proviso (cf. § 314): as,—
hoc est ita ütile ut ne plane illüdamur ab accūsatoribus (Rosc. Am. 55),
this is so far useful that are and accūsatoribus (Rosc. Am. 55),

this is so far useful that we are not utterly mocked by the accusers (i.e. useful only on this condition, that, etc.).

c. The subjunctive with the Kelative quominus (= ut eo minus) may be used to express a result after words Dhindering or refusing (cf. § 317 6. not de 1: as

nec aetās inpedit duominus agrī colenda studia teneamus (Cat. Maj. 60), nor deed age prevent us from retaining an integest in tilling the

d. A stause of result is introduced by their after general negatives, where quin is equipment to qui quae, quod) non; so also after egative clauses of hindrance, resistance, doubt, hesitation, and the Thrus,

nihil est Norum win [Yuod non] ego illī dīxerina (Plaut. Bac. 1012), there is nothing of this that I have not told him. ion dubito quin, yot doubt that (cf. the Eng., I do not doubt but

that). aegratin abstinut dain . . ., I hardly refrained from, etc. nikil impedit quin . . ., there is nothing to prevent, etc.

REMARK. — The constructions of Purpose and Result in Latin are precisely alike in the affirmative (but see sequence, § 287. c), but in the negative, Purpose takes ne, Result ut non, etc. Thus, -

custoditus est ne effugeret, he was guarded in order that he MIGHT not escape.

custoditus est ut non effugeret, he was guarded so that he DID not.

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indicate a characteristic of the aute ce dent where

§ 320.] CLAUSES OF CHARACTERISTIC.

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So in Purpose clauses ne quis, ne quid, ne ullus, ne quo, nequando, necubi, etc., are used; in Result clauses, ut nemo, ut nihil, ut nullus, etc. Thus.—

cernere ne quis eos neu quis contingere posset (Æn. i. 413), that no one might see them, no one touch them.

ita multī sunt imbēcillī senēs ut nūllum officī mūnus exsequī possint (Cat. Maj. 35), many old men are so feeble that they cannot perform their duties to society.

ne quando liberis proscriptorum bona patria reddantur (Rosc. Am. 145), lest ever the patrimony of the proscribed should be restored to their children.

The clause of Result is sometimes expressed in English by the Infinitive with TO or SO-AS-TO or an equivalent: as,—

tam longē aberam ut non vidērem, I was too far away to see (so far that I did not see; cf. § 320. c).

4. Clauses of Characteristic.

820. (RULE 77.) A relative clause with the Subjunctive is often used to indicate a *characteristic* of the antecedent, where there is no idea of Result.

This construction is especially common where the antecedent is otherwise undefined. Thus, —

neque enim tū is es, qui nesciss (Fam. v. 12, 6), for you are not such a one, as not to know.

multa dicunt quae vix intellegant (Fin. iv. 2), they say many things which (such as) they hardly understand.

a. A relative clause of characteristic is used after general expressions of existence or non-existence, including questions implying a negative, especially with sunt qui, there are [some] who; quis est qui, who is there who? Thus,—

sunt qui discessum animi a corpore putent esse mortem (Tusc. i. 18), there are some who think that the departure of soul from body constitutes death.

erant qui Helvidium miserarentur (Ann. xvi. 29), there were some who pitied Helvidius. [Cf. est cum (§ 322. Rem.).]

NOTE.—These are called Relative Clauses with an Indefinite Antecedent, but are to be distinguished from the Indefinite Relative in protasis (see § 316).

Che A relative clause of characteristic may follow unus and solus:

solus es cuius in victoria ceciderit nemo nisi armatus (Deiot. 34), you are the only man at whose victory no one has fallen unless armed.

c. A clause of result or characteristic, with quam ut, quam qui, may be used after comparatives: as,—

māiōrēs arborēs caedēbant quam quās ferre mīles posset (Liv. xxxiii. 5), they cut larger trees than what a soldier could carry (too large for a soldier to carry).

Canachī sīgna rigidiora sunt quam ut imitentur vēritātem (Brut. 70), the statues of Canachus are too stiff to represent nature (stiffer than that they should).

NOTE. — This construction corresponds to the English too . . . to.

d. A relative clause of characteristic is used in expressions of Restriction or Proviso (cf. § 319. b): as,—

quod sciam, so far as I know.

servus est nēmō, quī modo tolerābilī condiciōne sit servitūtis (Cat. iv. 16), there is not a slave, at least in any tolerable condition of slavery.

. A relative clause expressing cause or concession takes the subjunctive (§§ 313. h, 321. b): as,—

virum simplicem qui nos nihil celet (Or. 230), oh! guileless man, who hides nothing from us! [Causal.]

peccasse mihi videor qui a te discesserim (Fam. xvi. 1), I seem to myself to have done wrong because I have left you. [Causal.]

Note. — In this use the relative is equivalent to cum is, etc. It is often preceded by ut, utpote, or quippe: as, —

nec consul, ut qui id ipsum quaesisset, moram certamini fecit (Liv. xlii. 7), nor did the consul delay the fight, inasmuch as he had sought that very thing (as [being one] who had sought, etc.).

convīvia cum patre non inībat, quippe qui ne in oppidum quidem nisi perrāro venīret (Rosc. Am. 52), since he did not even come, etc.

f. (RULE 78.) Dignus, indignus, aptus, idoneus take a clause probably of result with a relative (or rarely with ut): as,—

dīgna in quibus ēlabōrārent (Tusc. i. 1), (things) worth spending their toil on (worthy on which they should, etc.).

indignus erās qui facerēs iniūriam, it was beneath you to do a wrong (you were unworthy who should, etc.).

idoneus qui impetret (Manil. 57), fit to obtain.

NOTE. — With these words the poets often use the Infinitive: as, — fons rīvo dare nomen idoneus (Hor. Ep. i. 16, 12), a source fit to give a name to a stream.

aetās mollis et apta regī (Ov.), a time of life soft and easy to be guided.

5. Causal Clauses.

321. (RULE 79.) The Causal Particles quod, quia, and quoniam take the Indicative, when the reason is given on the authority of the authority of speaker; the Subjunctive, when the reason is given on the authority of another: as,—

1. Indicative: -

cum tibi agam grāṭiās quod mē vīvere coēgistī (Att. iii. 3), when I may thank you that you have forced me to live.

quia postrêma aedificăta est (Verr. iv. 119), because it was built last. quoniam de ūtilitâte diximus, de efficiendi ratione (Or. Part. 94), since we have spoken of its advantage, let us speak of the method of effecting it.

2. Subjunctive: --

mihi grātulābāre quod audīssēs mē meam prīstinam dīgnitātem obtinēre (Fam. iv. 14, 1,) you congratulated me because [as you said] you had heard, etc.

mea mater īrāta est quia non redierim (Plaut. Cist. 103), my mother is angry because I did n't return.

NOTE 1. — The Subjunctive in this use depends on the principle of Intermediate Clauses (§ 341. a).

REMARK.—Non quod, non quia, non quoniam, introducing a reason expressly to deny it, take the Subjunctive. Non quo and non quin introduce a Result clause, but with nearly the same meaning (§ 341. d. Rem.). Thus,—

pugilēs ingemiscunt, non quod doleant, sed quia omne corpus intenditur (Tusc. ii. 56), boxers groan not because they are in pain, but because, etc. non quia philosophia percipī non posset (id. i. 1), not that philosophy cannot be acquired.

non quoniam hoc sit necesse (Verr. II. i. 24), not that this is necessary.

non quin enitendum sit (De Or. ii. 295), not that pains must not be taken.

- a. Causal Clauses introduced by quod, etc., take the Subjunctive in Indirect Discourse, like any other dependent clause (see § 336).
- b. A Relative, when used to express cause, regularly takes the Subjunctive (see § 320. e).
 - c. Cum causal takes the Subjunctive (see § 326).

NOTE. — In early Latin cum causal takes the Indicative (§ 326. note 3).

6. Relations of Time.

322. The particles ubi, ut, cum, quando, alone or with cumque may be used as Indefinite Relatives, and have the constructions of protasis (cf. § 316). Thus,—

cum id malum esse negās (Tusc. ii. 29), when you (the individual disputant) deny it to be an evil. [Present, nothing implied (cf. § 306).] quod profectō cum mē nūlla vīs cogeret, facere non audērem (Phil. v. 51), which I would surely not venture to do, as long as no force compelled me. [Present, contrary to facer: cf. § 308.]

cum videas eos . . . dolore non frangi (Tusc. ii. 66), when you see that those are not broken by pain, etc. [General condition: cf. § 309. a.] id ubi dixisset, hastam'in fines corum emittebat (Liv. i. 32, 13), when he had said this, he used to cast the spear into their territories. [Repeated action: see § 309. b.]

REMARK.— Rarely a time characterized by its circumstances, etc.... So the phrases est cum, fuit cum, etc., are used in general expressions like est qui, sunt qui (§ 320. a): as,—

āc fuit quidem cum mihi quoque initium requiescendi fore iustum arbitrarer (De Or. i. 1), and there was a time when I thought a beginning of rest would be justifiable on my part.

828.) Temporal clauses have two uses :—

They themselves define (with reference to the time of the speaker) the time of the clause on which they depend.

2. They describe by its circumstances the time of the main clause, which is defined not by them, but by the main clause itself.

Thus, in: When did the Emperor Frederick die? He died while the people were still mourning the death of his father, the time of the main clause, he died, is definitely fixed by the temporal clause, while the people, etc., as is seen by the fact that the temporal clause answers the question, WHEN did he die? But in: The Emperor Frederick died while the people were still mourning the death of his father, the time of the main clause is not defined by the temporal clause, but is regarded as sufficiently definite in itself (or from the context). The temporal clause is added to describe that time by the circumstances of the people's grief.

These two sorts of temporal clauses the Romans distinguished by means of the *mood*, invariably using the Indicative in the first and the Subjunctive in the second. They commonly also used the particles and the tenses in accordance with this division.

I. POSTQUAM, UBI, ETC.

824. The particles postquam (posteāquam), ubi, ut (ut primum, ut semel), simul atque (simul āc, or simul) take the Indicative (usually in the perfect or the historical present): as,—

milites postquam victoriam adopti sunt, nihil reliqui victis fecere (Sall. Cat. II), when the armies had won the victory, they left nothing to the vanquished.

ubi omnēs idem sentīre intellēxit (B. G. iii. 23), when he understood that all agreed (thought the same thing).

simul ac persensit (Æn. iv. 90), as soon as he perceived.

- These particles less commonly take the Imperfect or Pluperfect indicative. The Imperfect in this case denotes a state of things; the Pluperfect, an action completed in past time. Thus,—
 - P. Āfricānus posteāquam bis consul et censor fuerat (Div. in Cæc. 69), when Africanus had been (i.e. had the dignity of having been) twice consul and censor.
 - haec iuventūtem, ubi familiārēs opēs dēfēcerant, ad facinora incendēbant (Sall. Cat. 13), when their inherited resources had given out.
 - b. Rarely some of these particles take the subjunctive: as, posteāquam māximās aedificāsset örnāssetque clāssēs (Manil. 9), having built and equipped mighty fleets (after he had, etc.). [But the more approved editions have posteā èum.]

II. CUM TEMPORAL.

- 825. (Rule 80.) Cum (quom) TEMPORAL, meaning when, takes the Imperfect and Pluperfect in the Subjunctive, other tenses in the Indicative. Thus,
 - cum servīlī bellō premerētur (Manil. 30), when she (Italy) was under the load of the Servile War.
 - cum id nüntiātum esset, mātūrat (B. G. i. 7), when this had been reported he made (makes) haste.
 - cum occiditur Sex. Roscius, ibīdem fuērunt servī (Rosc. Am. 120), when Roscius was slain, the slaves were on the spot.

[For examples with the Future, see c, below.]

Note. — The Present takes the Indicative, because present time is generally, from its very nature, defined in the mind; and it is only when the circumstances are described as causal or adversative (see below, § 326),

that the Subjunctive is used. The Perfect takes the Indicative as the tense of narration, as with postquam, etc. The Imperfect and Pluperfect are, from their nature, better fitted to describe than to define the time.

(a) Cum temporal sometimes takes the Imperfect and Pluperfect Indicative to indicate a definite past time: as,—

quem quidem cum ex urbe pellebam, hoc providebam animo (Cat. iii. 16), when I was trying to force him (conative imperfect) from the city, I looked forward to this.

tum cum in Asiā rēs māgnās permultī āmīserant (Manil. 19), at that time, when many had lost great fortunes in Asia.

b. When the clauses are inverted, so that the logical temporal clause becomes the main clause, and the main clause becomes the temporal clause, the Indicative must be used with cum: as, —

hoc facere noctū apparābant, cum mātrēs familiae repentē in pūblicum procurrērunt (B. G. vii. 26), they were preparing to do this by night, when the women suddenly ran out into the streets.

c. To denote future time cum takes the Future or Future Perfect Indicative: as, —

longum illud tempus cum non ero (Att. xii. 18), that long time when I shall be no more.

cum vēneris, cōgnōscēs (Fam. v. 7), when you come (shall have come) you will find out.

REMARK. — Rarely a future time is characterized and takes the Subfunctive.

III. CUM CAUSAL OR CONCESSIVE.

326. (Rule 81.) Cum CAUSAL or CONCESSIVE takes the Subjunctive: as,—

cum prīmī ōrdinēs... concidissent, tamen ācerrimē reliquī resistēbant (B. G. vii. 61), though the first ranks had fallen, still the others resisted vigorously. [Concessive.]

NOTE 1. — Cum in these uses is often emphasized by ut, utpote, quippe, praesertim: as,—

nec reprehendō: quippe cum ipse istam reprehēnsionem non fügerim (Att. x. 3), I find no fault: since I myself did not escape that blame.

NOTE 2.—These causal and concessive relations are merely variations of the idea of time. The attendant circumstances are regarded as the cause of the action, or as tending to hinder it (cf. qui causal and concessive).

NOTE 3. — In early Latin cum (quom) causal and concessive usually takes the Indicative. So sometimes in classical Latin: as,—

quom tua res. distrahitur, utinam videam (Plaut. Trin. 573), since your property is torn in pieces, oh! that I may see, etc. [Cf. § 313. d. note.]

REMARK. — Cum causal may usually be translated by since; cum concessive by although or while.

a. Cum in the sense of quod, on the ground that, frequently takes the Indicative: as.—

grātulor tibi cum tantum valēs apud Dolābellam (Fam. ix. 14, 3), I congratulate you that you are so strong with Dolabella.

b. Cum . . . tum, signifying both . . . and, usually takes the Indicative; but when cum approaches the sense of while or though, it may have the Subjunctive (§ 326). Thus,—

cum multa non probo, tum illud in primīs (Fin. i. 18), while there are many things I do not approve, there is this in chief. But—

cum res tota ficta sit pueriliter, tum ne efficit quidem quod vult (id. 19), while the whole thing is childishly got up, he does not even make his point (accomplish what he wishes).

IV. ANTEQUAM AND PRIUSQUAM.

327. Antequam and priusquam, before, have in narration the same construction as cum temporal (§ 325): as,—

antequam tuās lēgī litterās (Att. ii. 7), before I read your letter.

neque ante dīmīsit eum quam fidem dedit adulēscēns (Liv. xxxix. 10), she did not let the young man go till he pledged his faith.

antequam hominës nefärii dë meö adventü audire potuissent, in Macedoniam perrëxi (Planc. 98), before those evil men could learn of my coming, I arrived in Macedonia.

NOTE. — The idea of purpose (usually corresponding to could or should in English) regularly requires the subjunctive: as,—

nunquam prius discessit quam ad finem sermo esset perductus, i.e. he waited for the conversation to be finished.

a. Antequam and priusquam, when referring to future time, take the Present or Future Perfect Indicative; rarely the Present Subjunctive: as,—

priusquam de ceteris rebus respondeo, de amicitia pauca dicam (Phil. ii. 3), before I reply to the rest, I will say a little on friendship.

antequam veniat litteras mittet (Ag. ii. 53), before he comes, he will send a letter.

- b. In a few cases the Subjunctive of the indefinite second person is found with antequam and priusquam (cf. $\S 309 a$): as,
 - in omnibus negōtiīs priusquam aggrediāre, adhibenda est praeparātiō dīligēns (Off. 1, 73), in all undertakings, before you proceed to action, careful preparation must be used.
 - V. DUM, DONEC, AND QUOAD.
- 828. Dum, donec and guoad implying purpose, doubt, or respectation, take the Subjunctive, otherwise the Indicative
 - 1. Subjunctive: as, —
 - exspectas fortasse dum dicat (Tusc. ii. 17), you are waiting perhaps for him to say (till he say).

Aenēān morandō sustinuit dum genitor projectus abīret (An. x. 800), he kept Æneas in check till his father could get away in safety.

Epaminondas exercebatur plūrimum luctando ad eum finem quoad stans complecti posset atque contendere (Nep. Epam. 2), Epaminondas trained himself in wrestling so far as to be able to grapple standing and fight (in that way).

2. Indicative (cf. a, below): as, —

hoc feci dum licuit, intermisi quoad non licuit (Phil. iii. 33), I did this so long as it was allowed, I discontinued it so long as it was not. quoad potuit restitit (Cat. Maj. 11), he resisted as long as he could.

NOTE 1. - Quamdit takes the Indicative only: as, -

sē oppidō tam diū tenuit quamdiū in provinciā Parthī fuērunt (Fam. xii. 19), he kept himself within the town so long as the Parthians were in the province.

Note 2. — For dum and dummodo introducing a proviso, see § 314.

a. Dum in the sense of while usually takes the Present Indicative to indicate a continued action in past time, if that time is not contrasted with any other (§ 276 e. and note): as,—

dum haec geruntur (B. G. i. 46), while this was going on.

REMARK. — With all temporal particles the Subjunctive is often found depending on some other principle of construction. (See Intermediate Clauses below, §§ 340 ff.)

II. SUBSTANTIVE CLAUSES.

829. A clause used as a noun is called a Substantive Clause.

A Substantive Clause may be used as the Subject or Object of a verb, as an Appositive or as a Predicate Nominative (or Accusative).

Note. — Many ideas which in English take the form of an abstract noun may be rendered by a substantive clause in Latin. Thus, he demanded an investigation, may be postulabat ut quaestio haberetur. The common English expression for with the infinitive also corresponds to a Latin substantive clause: as, it remains for me to speak of the piratic war, relicum est ut de bello dicam piratico.

REMARK. — When a Substantive Clause is used as Subject, the verb to which it is subject is called *impersonal*, and the sign of the construction in English is the so-called *expletive* IT.

Substantive Clauses are classified as follows: -

- I. Infinitive Clauses: {a. Infinitive clause as Subject (§ 270).
 b. Infinitive clause as Object (§ 330. B).
- 2. SUBJUNCTIVE CLAUSES:
 (ut, nē, quō, quīn, quīn, quōminus).

 (a. Of Purpose (command, wish, fear) (§ 331).

 (b. Of Result (happen, effect, hinder) (§ 332).
- 3. INDICATIVE CLAUSE with quod: Fact, Specification, Feeling.
- 4. Indirect Questions: Subjunctive, introduced by Interrogative Word.

z. Infinitive Clauses.

- 880. A. The Infinitive with Subject-Accusative may be used as the *subject* of sum and of many impersonal verbs (see § 270).
- B. The Infinitive with Subject-Accusative is used as the object —
- 1. Of all verbs and expressions of knowing, thinking, telling, and perceiving (Indirect Discourse) (§ 272).
 - mē spērō līberātum [esse] metū (Tusc. ii. 67), I trust I have been freed from fear.

- 2. Of tubeo and veto, and rarely of other verbs of commanding, requesting, admonishing, and the like (§ 331. a). Thus,
 - vetuēre [bona] reddī, vetuēre in pūblicum redigī (Liv. ii. 5), they forbade the return of the goods (that they be returned), etc.
 - Labiënum iugum montis adscendere iubet (B. G. i. 21), he orders Labienus to ascend the ridge of the hill.
 - 3. Sometimes of verbs of wishing (§ 331. b): as, —
 - iādicem mē esse non doctorem volo (Or. 117), I wish to be a judge, not a teacher.
- REMARK. The Infinitive with Subject-Accusative, though not strictly a Clause, is equivalent to one, and may be treated as such.
 - a. If the main verb is changed to the Passive, -
- 1. The subject of the infinitive becomes nominative, and the infinitive is retained (Personal Construction): as,—
 - •mons dicitur ab hostibus teneri, the hill is said to be held by the enemy. Labienus iugum montis adscendere iubētur, Labienus is ordered to ascend the ridge of the hill.
- 2. The passive is used *impersonally*, and the clause retained as its subject (*Impersonal Construction*):
 - dicitur montem ab hostibus tenērī, it is said that the hill is held by the enemy.
- b. 1. Verbs of saying, thinking, etc., take in the Passive either the Personal or the Impersonal construction. But the Personal is more common and is regular with the tenses of incomplete action. Thus,—

beātē vīxisse videor (Læl. 15), I seem to have lived happily.

Epamīnondās fidibus praeclārē cecinisse dīcitur (Tusc. i. 4), Epaminondas is said to have played excellently on the lyre.

- Iubeō and vetō always take the personal construction: as, —
 iūssus es renūntiārī cōnsul (Phil. ii. 79), you were under orders to be declared consul.
- Nolani muros portasque adire vetiti sunt (Liv. xxiii. 16), the men of Nola were forbidden to go to visit the walls and gates.
- c. In the compound tenses of verbs of saying, etc., the impersonal construction is more common, and with the gerundive is regular: as,—

- trāditum est etiam Homērum caecum fuisse (Tusc. v. 114), it is a tradition, too, that Homer was blind.
- ubi tyrannus est, ibi non vitiosam, sed dicendum est plane nullam esse rempublicam (Rep. iii. 43), where there is a tyrant, it must be said, not that the Commonwealth is evil, but that it does not exist at all.
- d. The poets and later writers extend the personal use of the passive to verbs which are not properly verba sentiendi, etc.: as,—colligor dominae placuisse (Ov. Am. ii. 6, 61), it is gathered [from this memorial] that I pleased my mistress.
- e. The Infinitive with a subject may depend on any word implying speech or thought, though not strictly a verb of saying, etc.
- f. Verbs of promising, hoping, expecting, threatening, swearing, and the like, regularly take the construction of Indirect Discourse, contrary to the English idiom: as,
 - minātur sēsē abīre (Plaut. Asin. 604), he threatens to go away. [Direct: abeō, I am going away.]
 - ex quibus spērant sē māximum früctum esse captūros (Læl. 79), from which they hope to gain the utmost advantage. [Direct: capiēmus.]
- Note. These verbs, however, often take a simple Complementary Infinitive. Thus, pollicentur obsides dare (B. G. iv. 21), they promise to give hostages.

2. Clauses of Purpose.

- Note. Clauses of Purpose may be used substantively (1) as the Object of verbs of *admonishing*, etc. (\S 331); (2) as the Subject of these same verbs in the passive (\S 331. \hbar), and of impersonal verbs and verbal phrases (\S 331. i); (3) in apposition with a substantive, or as predicate nominative, etc.
- 831. Substantive Clauses of Purpose with ut (negative nē) are used as the object of all verbs denoting an action directed toward the future.¹

Such are, verbs meaning to admonish, ask, bargain, command, decree, determine, permit, persuade, resolve, urge, and wish. Thus,—

¹ Such verbs or verbal phrases are id agō, ad id veniō, caveō (nē), cēnseō, cōgō, concēdō, cōnstituō, cūrō, dēcernō, ēdīcō, flāgitō, hortor, imperō, īnstō, mandō, moneō, negōtium dō, operam dō, orō, persuādeō, petō, postulō, praecipiō, precor, prōnūntiō, quaerō, rogō, scīscō, timeō, videō, volō.

his ut conquirerent imperavit (B. G. i. 28), he ordered them to search. persuadet Castico ut regnum occuparet (B. G. i. 3), he persuades Casticus to usurp royal power.

a. Iubeo, order, and veto, forbid, take the Infinitive with Subject Accusative (§ 330. B. 2): as,—

līberos ad sē addūcī iūssit (B. G. ii. 5), he ordered the children to be brought to him.

ab opere legatos discedere vetuerat (id. 20), he had forbidden the lieutenants to leave the work.

NOTE 1.— Other verbs of commanding, etc., may take the Infinitive: as,—

haec facere imperatum est, orders were given to do this.

res monet cavere (Sall. Cat. 52), the occasion warns us to be on our guard.

- b. Verbs of wishing take either the Subjunctive or the Infinitive. The Infinitive is more common when the subject remains the same; the Subjunctive, when it changes. Thus,—
 - Subject of dependent verb same as that of main verb:—
 quös nön tam ulcīscī studeō quam sānāre (Cat. ii. 17), whom I do not care
 so much to punish as to cure.
 - 2. Subject of dependent verb different from that of main verb:—cupiō ut impetret (Plaut. Capt. 102), I wish he may get it.

māllem Cerberum metuerēs (Tusc. i. 12), I would rather you feared Cerberus.

Note. — Volo and cupio, however, tend to take the Accusative and Infinitive rather than the Subjunctive, even when the subject changes. When it remains the same, the subject accusative is rarely found. Thus, — iūdicem mē esse, non doctorem volo (Or. 117), I wish to be a judge, not a teacher.

cupio me esse clementem (Cat. i. 4), I desire to be merciful. [But regularly, cupio esse clemens (see § 271. a).]

c. Verbs of permitting take either the Subjunctive or the Infinitive. Pattor takes regularly the Infinitive with Subject Accusative; so often sinō. Thus,—

permīsit ut partēs faceret (De Or. ii. 366), permitted him to make divisions. vīnum importārī non sinunt (B. G. iv. 2), they do not allow wine to be imported.

d. Verbs of determining, decreeing, resolving, bargaining take either the Subjunctive or the Infinitive: as,—

constituerant ut L. Bestia quereretur (Sall. Cat. 43), they had determined that Lucius Bestia should complain.

proelio supersedere statuit (B. G. ii. 8), he determined to refuse battle.

NOTE 1. — Different verbs of these classes with the same meaning vary in their construction. For verbs of *bargaining* with the Gerundive, see § 294. d.

NOTE 2. — Verbs of decreeing and voting often take the Infinitive of the Second Periphrastic conjugation: as, —

Rēgulus captīvōs reddendōs [esse] non cēnsuit (Off. i. 39), Regulus voted that the captīves should not be returned. [He said, in giving his formal opinion: captīvī non reddendī sunt.]

e. 1. Verbs of caution and effort take the Subjunctive with ut.
But conor, try, usually takes the Complementary Infinitive as,—

cūrā ut quam prīmum intellegam (Fam. xiii. 10), let me know as soon as possible (take care that I may understand).

dant operam ut habeant (Sall. Cat. 41), they take pains to have (give their attention that, etc.).

sī trānsīre conārentur (B. G. i. 8), if they should try to cross.

Note. — Conor si also occurs (cf. miror si, etc., § 333. b. Rem.).

2. Verbs denoting an effort to hinder take either (1) a Subjunctive clause with quominus or no, or (2) the Infinitive: as, —

non deterret sapientem mors quominus . . . (Tusc. i. 91), death does not prevent the wise man from, etc.

ne facerem impedivit (Fat. 1), prevented me from doing.

prohibet accedere (Caec. 46), prevents him from approaching (to approach).

NOTE. — For verbs of hindering negatived (not to hinder), see § 332. g.

f. Verbs of fearing take the Subjunctive, with ne affirmative and ne non or ut negative. Thus, —

timeō në Verrës fëcerit (Verr. v. 3), I fear that Verres has done, etc. vereor ut tibi possim concēdere (De Or. i. 35), I fear [that] I cannot grant you.

Note. — In this use ne is commonly to be translated by that or lest, ut and ne non by that not.

REMARK. — With some verbs of the above classes ut is often omitted. So generally after verbs of wishing, necessity, permission, after dic, fac, and often in Indirect Discourse after verbs of commanding, etc.: as, —

volō amēs (Att. ii. 10), I wish you to love, etc.

mē ipsum amēs oportet (Fin. ii. 85), you ought to love me.

Mnēsthea vocat, clāssem aptent socii (Æn. iv. 289), he calls Mnestheus [and orders that] his comrades should make ready the fleet (cf. § 339).

Note. — Similarly në is omitted after cave in Prohibitions (cf. § 269. a).

g. With any verbs of the above classes the poets may use the Infinitive instead of an object clause: as, —

hortamur fari (Æn. ii. 74), we urge [him] to speak. në quaere docëri (id. vi. 614), seek not to be told.

h. A substantive clause of Purpose used as the object of a verb becomes the subject when that verb is put in the passive. Thus,—

imperatum est ut iter facerent, it was ordered that they should march. permissum est ut irent, permission was given that they should go.

i. The impersonals licet and oportet take as subject either a Substantive clause of Purpose or an Infinitive with or without subject-accusative. Thus, —

licet me ire, it is allowed me to go. queramur licet (Cæc. 41), we are allowed to complain.

NOTE 1.— The Subjunctive with oportet omits ut, except in later writers (see § 331. f. Rem.).

Note 2. — Licet may take the Subjunctive, usually without ut, to denote concession (see § 313. b).

NOTE 3.—Licet may take (1) the Subjunctive; (2) the Simple Infinitive; (3) the Infinitive with Subject Accusative; or (4) the Dative and the Infinitive. Thus, I may go is licet eam, licet ire, licet me ire, or licet mini ire.

3. Clauses of Result.

NOTE. — Clauses of Result may be used substantively, (1) as the object of facio, etc. (\S 332); (2) as the subject of these same verbs in the passive, as well as of other verbs and verbal phrases (\S 332. a, d); (3) in apposition with another substantive, or as predicate nominative, etc. (see \S 332. f).

882. Substantive Clauses of Result with ut (negative ut non) are used as the object of verbs denoting the accomplishment of an effort.

Such are especially facto and its compounds (efficio, conficto, etc.). Thus, —

- efficiam ut intellegătis (Cluent. 7), *I will make you understand* (lit. effect that you, etc.). [So faciam ut intellegătis (id. 4).]
- commeātūs ut portārī posset efficiēbat (B. G. ii. 5), made it possible that supplies could be brought.
- a. Substantive Clauses of Result are used as the Subject -
- 1. Of passive verbs denoting the accomplishment of an effort: as,
 - impetrātum est ut in senātū recitārentur (litterae) (B. C. i. I), they succeeded in having the letter read in the senate (it was brought about that, etc.).
- 2. Of Impersonals meaning it happens, it remains, it follows, it is necessary, it is added, and the like: als,
 - accidit ut esset lūna plēna (B. G. iv. 29), it happened to be full moon (it happened that it was, etc.). [Here ut esset is subject of accidit.]
 - reliqua est quarta virtus ut sit ipsa frugalitas (Tusc. iii. 17), it remains that the fourth virtue is thrift. [So also restat.]
- b. A result clause, with or without ut, frequently follows quam, after a comparative (but see § 336. c. note 2): as,
 - perpessus est omnia potius quam indicăret (Tusc. ii. 52), he endured all rather than betray, etc.
- c. A result clause, with or without ut, is often used elliptically, in exclamatory questions. The question may be introduced by the interrogative -ne. Thus,
 - quamquam quid loquor? to ut ulla res frangat (Cat. i. 22), yet why do I speak? [the idea] that anything should bend you!

egone ut të interpellem (Tusc. ii. 42), what, I interrupt you? ego të vidëre noluerim (Q. Fr. i. 3, 1), I unwilling to see you?

- REMARK. The Infinitive, in exclamations (§ 274), usually refers to something actually occurring; the Subjunctive, to something contemplated.
- d. The phrase tantum abest, it is so far [from being the case], regularly takes two clauses of result with ut; one is substantive, the subject of abest; the other is adverbial, correlative with tantum. Thus,
 - tantum abest ut nostra mīrēmur, ut usque eō difficilēs āc mōrōsī sīmus, ut nōbīs nōn satisfaciat ipse Dēmosthenēs (Or. 104), so far from admiring my own works, I am difficult and captious to that degree, that not Demosthenes himself satisfies me. [Here the first ut-clause is the subject of abest (§ 332. a); the second, a result clause, after tantum (§ 319); and the third, after usque eō.]

e. The expressions facere ut, committere ut, with the subjunctive, often form a periphrasis for the simple verb: as,—

invītus fēcī ut Flāminium ē senātū ēicerem (Cat. Maj. 42), it was with reluctance that I expelled Flaminius from the senate.

f. Rarely, a thought or an idea is considered as a result, and is expressed by the subjunctive with ut instead of the accusative and infinitive. (§ 336. 1). In this case a demonstrative usually precedes: as,—

praeclārum illud est, ut eos . . . amēmus (Tusc. iii. 73), this is a noble thing, that we should love, etc.

vērīsimile non est ut ille anteponeret (Verr. iv. 11), it is not likely that he preferred.

g. A Relative clause of Result with quin is used with verbs or other expressions of *hindering* and the like when these are negatived. Thus,—

facere non possum quin . . . (Att. xii. 27), I cannot avoid, etc. ut null re impedirer quin (Att. iv. 2, 6), that I might be hindered by nothing from, etc.

NOTE 1.— The negative may be expressed (as in the examples above) or merely implied (as in quis impedit quin eam, who (i.e. nobody) hinders me from going?).

REMARK. — This usage is found especially with the phrase non dubito, I do not doubt, and similar expressions: as, —

non dubitabat quin ei crederemus (Att. vi. 2, 3), he did not doubt that we believed him.

NOTE 2. — Non dubito, in the sense of *I do not hesitate*, commonly takes the Infinitive, but sometimes quin with the subjunctive. Thus, —

nec dubitare illum appellare sapientem (Læl. 1), and not to hesitate to call him a sage.

dubitandum non existimăvit quin proficisceretur (B. G. ii. 2), he did not think he ought to hesitate to set out.

h. Some verbs and expressions may be used either as verbs of saying or as verbs of commanding or effecting. Hence they are variously construed. Thus,—

res ipsa monebat tempus esse (Att. x. 8), the thing itself warned that it was time. [Cf. moner ut, warn to do something.]

hoc volunt persuadere, non interire animas (B. G. vi. 14), they wish to convince that souls do not perish.

huic persuadet uti ad hostes transeat (B. G. iii. 18), persuades him to pass over to the enemy.

Note. — The infinitive with subject-accusative in this construction is Indirect Discourse, and is to be distinguished from the simple infinitive sometimes found with these verbs instead of a subjunctive clause.

4. Indicative with Quod.

888. A peculiar form of Substantive Clause consisting of quod causal with the Indicative is used when the statement is regarded as a fact: as,—

alterum est vitium, quod quidam nimis māgnum studium conferunt (Off. i. 19), it is another fault that some bestow too much zeal, etc. [Here ut conferant could be used, meaning that some should bestow; or the accusative and infinitive, meaning to bestow (abstractly); quod makes it a fact that men do bestow, etc.]

quod rediit nobis mīrābile vidētur (Off. iii. 111), that he (Regulus) returned seems wonderful to us.

Note. — The clause with quod may be used as subject, as object, as appositive, etc., but it is commonly either the subject or in apposition with the subject.

a. In colloquial language, the clause with quod sometimes appears as an accusative of specification, corresponding to the English WHEREAS (cf. § 326. a): as,—

quod de domo scribis (Fam. xiv. 2, 3), as to what you write of the house.

b. Verbs of feeling and the expression of feeling take either quod, quia (Causal), or the accusative and infinitive (Indirect Discourse): as,—

quod scrībis . . . gaudeō (Q. F. iii. 1, 9), I am glad that you write. quae perfecta esse vehementer laetor (Rosc. Am. 136), I greatly rejoice that this is finished.

Remark. — Miror and similar expressions are sometimes followed by a clause with $si,^1$ apparently substantive, but really a protasis (cf. § 331. ϵ . 1. note). Thus, —

miror si quemquam amicum habere potuit (Læl. 54), I wonder if he could ever have a friend. [Originally, If this is so, I wonder at it.]

¹ Cf. the Greek θαυμάζω el.

5. Indirect Questions.

Note. — An Indirect Question is any sentence or clause introduced by an Interrogative word (pronoun, adverb, etc.), which is itself the subject or object of a verb, or depends on any expression implying uncertainty or doubt. In grammatical form, exclamatory sentences are not distinguished from interrogative.

884. (Rule 82.) An Indirect Question takes its verb in the Subjunctive: as,

quid ipse sentiam expōnam (Div. i. 10), I will explain what I think. [Direct: quid sentio.]

rogat mē quid sentiam, he asks me what I think. [Cf. rogat mē sententiam, he asks me my opinion.]

Note. — An Indirect Question may be the subject of a verb, the direct object, the secondary object, or an appositive.

The tenses in Indirect Questions follow the rules for sequence of tenses.

a. Indirect Questions referring to future time take the subjunctive of the First Periphrastic conjugation: as,—

prospició qui concursus futuri sint (Div. in Caec. 42), I foresee what throngs there will be. [Direct: qui erunt?]

6. The Deliberative Subjunctive (see § 268 and examples) remains unchanged in an Indirect Question, except in tense: as,—

[quaeritur] utrum Carthāgō dīruātur, an Carthāginiēnsibus reddātur (De Inv. i. 17), [the question is] shall Carthage be destroyed, or restored to the Carthaginians.

incertō quid peterent aut vītārent (Liv. xxviii. 36), since it was doubtful (abl. abs.) what they should seek or shun.

c. In colloquial usage and in poetry the subject of an Indirect Question is often attracted into the main clause as object (accusative of anticipation): as,—

nosti Marcellum quam tardus sit (Fam. viii. 10), you know how slow Marcellus is. [For nosti quam tardus sit Marcellus. Cf. I know thee who thou art.]

REMARK. — In some cases the *Object of anticipation* becomes Subject by a change of *voice*, and an apparent mixture of relative and interrogative construction is the result: as, —

- quidam saepe in parvā pecūniā perspiciuntur quam sint levēs (Læl. 63), it is often seen, in a trifling matter of money, how unprincipled some people are (some people are often seen through, how unprincipled they are).
- d. Indirect Questions often take the Indicative in poetry: as, non reputat quid laboris est (Plaut. Am. 172), he does not consider what a task it is.
- e. A few interrogative expressions are used parenthetically in an indefinite sense and do not take a subjunctive. Such are—

nesciō quis (and kindred forms), I know not who, somebody or other, etc. mīrum (nīmīrum) quam, marvellously (marvellous how).

Examples are : --

quī istam nesciō quam indolentiam māgnopere laudant (Tusc. iii. 12), who greatly extol that freedom from pain, whatever that is.
mīrum quantum prōfuit (Liv. ii. 1), it helped prodigiously.

f. An indirect question is occasionally introduced by sī in the sense of whether (like if in English, cf. § 333. b. Rem.): as,—

circumfunduntur hostes si quem aditum reperire possent (B. G. vi. 37), the enemy pour round [to see] if they can find entrance.

Note. — This is strictly a Protasis, but usually no Apodosis is thought of, and the clause is virtually an Indirect Question.

g. Forsit, forsitan, forsan, fortasse, fortasse an, perhaps, are often followed by the Subjunctive: as, —

forsitan quaeratis qui iste terror sit (Rosc. Am. 5), you may perhaps inquire what this alarm is.

NOTE. —The Subjunctive Clause in this case was originally an Indirect Question. Thus, it would be a chance whether, etc.

III. INDIRECT DISCOURSE.

885. A Direct Quotation gives the exact words of the original speaker or writer.

An Indirect Quotation adapts the words of the speaker or writer to the construction of the sentence in which they are quoted.

I. FORMAL INDIRECT DISCOURSE.

- **336.** I. Verbs and other expressions of *knowing*, thinking, telling, and perceiving 1 govern the Indirect Discourse.
- 2. (RULE 83.) In the Indirect Discourse the main clause of a Declaratory Sentence is put in the Infinitive with Subject Accusative. All Subordinate clauses take the Subjunctive. Thus,—

spērō mē līberātum [esse] dē metū (Tusc. ii. 67), I trust I have been freed from fear.

[dīcit] esse nonnullos quorum auctoritas plurimum valeat (B. G. i. 17), he says there are some whose influence most prevails. [In direct discourse: sunt nonnulli . . . valet.]

NOTE 1.—In the statement of all speech or thought, the Romans tended to use the Indirect Discourse, etc., with verbs of the classes mentioned, but: inquam, said I (etc.), is appropriated to the Direct Discourse except in poetry.

NOTE 2.—The verb of saying, etc., is often not expressed, but implied in some word or in the general drift of the sentence: as,—

ōrantēs ut urbibus saltem—iam enim agrōs dēplōrātōs esse—opem senātus ferret (Liv. xli. 6), praying that the senate would at least bring aid to the cities—for the fields [they said] were already given up as lost.

1. Subject Accusative.

a. 1. The Subject of the Infinitive in Indirect Discourse must regularly be expressed, even if it is wanting in the direct: as,—

orator sum, I am an orator; dīcit se esse oratorem, he says he is an orator.

Note. — But the subject is often omitted, if easily understood: as, — ignoscere imprudentiae dixit (B. G. iv. 27), he said he pardoned their rashness.

¹ Such are: (1) knowing, sciō, cōgnōscō, compertum habeō, etc.; (2) thinking, putō, exīstimō, arbitror, etc.; (3) telling, dīcō, nūntiō, referō, polliceor, prōmīttō, certiōrem faciō, etc.; (4) perceiving, sentiō, comperiō, videō, audiō, etc. So in general any word that denotes thought or mental and visual perception or their expression may govern the Indirect Discourse.

- REMARK. After a relative, or quam (than), if the verb would be the same as that of the main clause, it is usually omitted, and its subject is attracted into the accusative: as,
 - tē suspicor eīsdem rēbus quibus mē ipsum commovērī (Cat. Maj. 1), I suspect that you are disturbed by the same things as I.
- 2. When the verb of saying, etc., becomes passive, the construction may be either Personal or Impersonal (see § 330. a-d).

2. Subordinate Clauses.

- b. A subordinate clause merely explanatory or containing statements which are regarded as true independently of the quotation takes the Indicative: as,
 - quis neget haec omnia quae vidēmus deōrum potestāte administrārī (Cat. iii. 21), who can deny that all these things we see are ruled by the power of the gods?
 - cūius ingeniō putābat ea quae gesserat, posse celebrārī (Arch. 20), by whose genius he thought that those deeds which he had done could be celebrated. [Here the fact expressed by quae gesserat, though not explanatory, is felt to be true without regard to the quotation: quae gessisset would mean, what Marius claimed to have done.]
- Note. It often depends merely upon the feeling of the writer whether he shall use the Indicative or Subjunctive in such clauses (cf. §§ 340-342).
- c. Clauses introduced by a relative which is equivalent to a demonstrative with a conjunction are not properly subordinate, and hence take the Accusative and Infinitive in Indirect Discourse: as,
 - Mārcellus requīsīsse dīcitur Archimēdem illum, quem cum audīsset interfectum permolestē tulisse (Verr. iv. 131), Marcellus is said to have sought for Archimedes, and when he heard that he was slain, to have been greatly distressed.
 - unumquemque nostrum censent philosophi mundi esse partem, ex quo [=et ex eo] illud nāturā consequi (Fin. iii. 64), the philosophers say that each one of us is a part of the universe, from which this naturally follows.
- NOTE I. Really subordinate clauses occasionally take this construction: as,
 - quemadmodum sī non dedātur obses pro rupto sē foedus habitūrum, sīc deditam inviolātam ad suos remīssūrum (Liv. ii. 13), [he says] as in case the hostage is not given up he shall consider the treaty as broken, so if given up he will return her unharmed to her friends.

NOTE 2. — The infinitive construction is regularly continued after a comparative with quam: as, —

addit sē prius occīsum īrī ab eō quam mē violātum īrī (Att. ii. 20, 2), he adds that he himself will be killed by him, before I shall be injured.

NOTE 3. — The Subjunctive with or without ut also occurs with quam (see § 332. b).

d. A subordinate clause in the Indirect Discourse occasionally takes the Indicative when the fact is emphasized: as,—

factum ēius hostis perīculum ... cum, Cimbrīs et Teutonīs ... pulsīs, non minorem laudem exercitus quam ipse imperātor meritus vidēbātur (B. G. i. 40), that a trial of this enemy had been made when, etc., the army seemed, etc.

3. Tenses of the Infinitive.

886. A. The Present, the Perfect, or the Future Infinitive is used in Indirect Discourse, according as the time indicated is *present*, *past*, or *future*, with reference to the verb of *saying*, etc., by which the Indirect Discourse is introduced. Thus,—

cadō,
$$I$$
 am falling $\begin{cases} d\bar{l}cit \\ d\bar{l}xit \end{cases}$ sē cadere, $\begin{cases} he \ says \\ he \ said \end{cases}$ he $\begin{cases} is \\ was \end{cases}$ falling. cadēbam, I was falling $d\bar{l}cit \\ d\bar{l}xit \end{cases}$ sē cecidisse, $\begin{cases} he \ says \\ he \ said \end{cases}$ he was falling, he cecideram, I had fallen.

cadam, I shall fall {dīcit dīxit} sē cāsūrum [esse], {he says he shall fall. he said he should fall. ceciderō, I shall {dīcit fore ut ceciderit [rare], he says he shall have fallen. have fallen dīxit fore ut cecidisset [rare], he said he should have fallen.

Note 1.—All varieties of past time are usually expressed in Indirect Discourse by the Perfect Infinitive, which may stand for the Imperfect, the Perfect, or the Pluperfect Indicative of the Direct. But sometimes continued or repeated action in past time is expressed by the Present Infinitive, which in such cases stands for the Present Indicative of the Direct Discourse, and is often called the *Imperfect Infinitive* (so regularly after memini): thus,—

tē meminī dīcere, I remember that you said. [Direct : dīcēbās.]

NOTE 2. — For various ways of expressing the Future Infinitive, see § 147. c.

4. Tenses of the Subjunctive.

886. B. The tenses of the Subjunctive in Indirect Discourse follow the rule for the Sequence of Tenses (§ 286). They depend for their sequence on the verb of saying, etc., by which the Indirect Discourse is introduced.

Thus in the sentence, dixit se Roman iturum ut consulem videret, he said he should go to Rome in order that he might see the consul, videret follows the sequence of dixit without regard to the Future Infinitive, iturum [esse], on which it directly depends.

NOTE 1. — This rule applies not only to the subjunctive in subordinate clauses in indirect discourse, but also to that which stands for the imperative, etc. (see examples in § 339), and to that in questions (§ 338).

NOTE 2. — A subjunctive depending on a Perfect Infinitive is commonly in the Imperfect or Pluperfect, even if the verb of saying, etc., is in a primary tense (cf. § 287. i). Thus, —

tantum profecisse videmur ut a Graecis ne verborum quidem copia vinceremur (N. D. i. 8), we seem to have advanced so far that even in fullness of words we ARE not surpassed by the Greeks.

a. The Present and Perfect Subjunctive are often used in dependent clauses of the Indirect Discourse even when the verb of saying, etc., is in a secondary tense: as,—

dīcēbant . . . totidem Nerviōs (pollicērī) quī longissimē absint (B. G. ii. 4), they said that the Nervii, who live farthest off, promised as many.

Note. — This construction comes from the tendency of language to refer all time in narration to the time of the speaker (*Repraesentātiō*). In the course of a long passage in the Indirect Discourse the tenses of the subjunctive often vary, sometimes following the Sequence, and sometimes affected by *Repraesentātiō*. For examples see B. G. i. 13, vii. 20, etc.

5. Conditions in Indirect Discourse.

- 387. Conditional sentences in Indirect Discourse are expressed as follows:—
- 1. The Protasis, being a subordinate clause, is always in the Subjunctive.
- 2. The Apodosis, if independent and not hortatory or optative, is always in some form of the Infinitive.

a. The Present Subjunctive in the apodosis of less vivid future conditions (§ 307. b) becomes the Future Infinitive. Thus there is no distinction between more or less vivid future conditions in the Indirect Discourse.

Examples of conditional sentences in Indirect Discourse are—

- 1. Simple Present Condition (§ 306).
- (dīxit) sī ipse populō Rōmānō nōn praescrīberet quemadmodum suō iūre ūterētur, nōn oportēre sēsē ā populō Rōmānō in suō iūre impedīrī (B. G. i. 36), he said that if he did not dictate to the Roman people how they should use their rights, he ought not to be interfered with by the Roman people in the exercise of his rights. [Direct: sī non praescrībō...non oportet.]
- praedicāvit...sī pāce ūtī velint, inīcum esse, etc. (B. G. i. 44), he asserted that if they wished to enjoy peace, it was unfair, etc. [Direct: sī volunt...est. Present tense kept by Repraesentātiō (§ 336. B. a. note).]
- 2. Simple Past Condition (§ 306.)
- non dicam ne illud quidem si maxime in culpa fuerit Apollonius, tamen in hominem honestissimae civitatis honestissimum tam graviter animadverti causa indicta non oportuisse (Verr. v. 20), I will not say this either, that, even if Apollonius was greatly in fault, still an honorable man ought not to have been punished so severely, etc. [Direct: si fuit . . . non oportuit.]
- 3. Future Conditions (§ 307).
- Aeduīs sē obsidēs redditūrum non esse, neque ess... bellum illātūrum, sī in eo manērent, quod convēnisset, stīpendiumque quotannīs penderent: sī id non fēcissent, longē eīs frāternum nomen populī Romānī abfutūrum (B. G. i. 36), he said that he would not give up the hostages to the Ædui, but would not make war upon them if they observed the agreement, etc., and paid tribute yearly; but if they should not do this, the name of brothers to the Roman people would be far from aiding them. [Direct: reddam... inferam...sī manēbunt... pendent: sī non fēcerint... aberit.]
- id Datamēs ut audīvit, sēnsit, sī in turbam exīsset ab homine tam necessāriō sē relictum, futūrum [esse] ut cēterī cōnsilium sequantur (Nep. Dat. 6), if it should get abroad that he had been abandoned by a man so closely connected with him, everybody else would follow his example. [Direct: sī exierit... sequentur.]
- b. In changing a Condition contrary to fact (§ 308) into the Indirect Discourse, the following points require notice:—

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1. The Protasis always remains unchanged in tense.

matania.

- 2. If the verb of the Apodosis is *active* it takes a peculiar infinitive form, made by combining the Participle in <u>-ūrus</u> with <u>fuisse</u>.
- 3. If it is passive or has no supine stem, the periphrasis futurum fuisse ut (with the Imperfect Subjunctive) must be used.
 - 4. An Indicative in the Apodosis becomes Perfect Infinitive.

Examples are -

- nec se superstitem fîliae futurum fuisse, nisi spem ulcīscendae mortis eius in auxilio commīlitonum habuisset (Liv. iii. 50), and that he should not now be a survivor, etc., unless he had had hope, etc. [Direct: non superstes essem, nisi habuissem.]
- quorum si aetas potuisset esse longinquior, futurum fuisse ut omnibus perfectis artibus hominum vita ērudīrētur (Tusc. iii. 69), if life could have been longer, human existence would have been embellished by every art in its perfection. [Direct: ērudīta esset.]
- sī Cn. Pompēius prīvātus esset, tamen erat dēligendus (Manil. 50), if P. were a private citizen, still he ought to be chosen, would become dēligendum fuisse.
- NOTE I.—In Indirect Discourse Present Conditions contrary to fact are not distinguished in the *apodosis* from Past, but the *protasis* may keep them distinct.
- NOTE 2.—The periphrasis futurum fuisse ut is sometimes used from choice when there is no necessity for resorting to it.
- Note 3.— Very rarely the Future Infinitive is used in the Indirect Discourse to express the Apodosis of a Present Condition contrary to fact. Only four or five examples of this use occur in classic authors: as,—

Titurius clāmābat sī Caesar adesset neque Carnūtēs, etc., neque Eburōnēs tantā cum contemptione nostrī ad castra ventūros esse (B. G. v. 29), Titurius cried out that if Casar were present, neither would the Carnutes, etc., nor would the Eburones be coming to our camp with such contempt. [Direct: sī adesset:..venīrent.]

6. Questions in Indirect Discourse.

888. (Rule 84.) In the Indirect Discourse a *real* question, asking for an answer, is generally put in the Subjunctive: a *rhetorical* question, asked for effect and implying its own answer, in the Infinitive. Thus,—

quid sibi vellet? cūr in suās possēssionēs venīret (B. G. i. 44), what did he want? why did he come into his territories? [Real question. Direct: quid vis? cūr venīs?]

() ().

num recentium iniūriārum memoriam [sē] dēpōnere posse (id. i. 14), could he lay aside the memory of recent wrongs? [Rhetorical Question. Direct: num possum?]

NOTE I.— No sharp line can be drawn between the Subjunctive and the Infinitive in questions in the Indirect Discourse. Whether the question is to be regarded as *rhetorical* or *real* often depends merely on the writer's point of view. Thus,—

utrum partem rēgnī petītūrum esse, an tōtum ēreptūrum (Liv. xlv. 19), will you ask part of the regal power (he said), or seize the whole?

Note 2.—Questions coming immediately after a verb of asking are treated as Indirect Questions and take the Subjunctive (see § 334). This is true even when the verb of asking serves also to introduce a passage in the Indirect Discourse. The question may be either real or rhetorical.

NOTE 3. — For the use of tenses, see § 336. B, note 1.

a. A Deliberative Subjunctive in the Direct Discourse is always retained in the Indirect: as,—

cür aliquös ex suīs āmītteret (B. C. i. 72), why (thought he) should he lose some of his men? [Direct: cür āmīttam?]

7. Commands in Indirect Discourse.

889. (RULE 85.) All Imperative forms of speech take the Subjunctive in Indirect Discourse: as,—

reminisceretur veteris incommodī (B. G. i. 13), remember (said he) the ancient disaster. [Direct: reminiscere.]

finem faciat (id. 20), let him make an end. [Direct : fac.]

REMARK. — This rule applies not only to the Imperative of the direct discourse, but to the hortatory and the optative subjunctive as well.

NOTE I. — Though these subjunctives stand for independent clauses of the direct discourse, they follow the rule for the sequence of tenses, being in fact dependent on the verb of saying, etc. (cf. §§ 286, 336. B, note 1).

Note 2. — A Prohibition in the Indirect Discourse is regularly expressed by në with the Subjunctive, even when nöll with the Infinitive would be used in the Direct: as,—

nē perturbārentur (B. G. vii. 29), do not (he said) be troubled. [Direct: nolite perturbāri. But sometimes nollet is found in Ind. Disc.]

The following example illustrates some of the foregoing principles in a connected address:—

INDIRECT DISCOURSE.

Sī pācem populus Romanus cum Helvētiīs faceret, in eam partem itūros atque ibi futūros Helvētios, ubi eos Caesar constituisset atque esse voluisset: sīn bellō persequī persevērāret, reminiscerētur et veteris incommodī populī Rōmānī, et prīstinae virtūtis Helvētiorum. Ouod improviso unum pagum adortus esset. cum ei qui flümen trānsissent suis auxilium ferre non possent, ne ob eam rem aut suae māgnō opere virtūtī tribueret, aut ipsos despiceret: sē ita ā patribus māioribusque suīs didicisse, ut magis virtūte quam dolō contenderent, aut însidiis niterentur. Ouārē nē commītteret, ut is locus ubi cönstitissent ex calamităte populī Romānī et internecione exercitūs nomen caperet, aut memoriam proderet. - B. G. i. 13.

DIRECT DISCOURSE.

Sī pācem populus Romānus cum Helvētiīs faciet, in eam partem ībunt atque ibi erunt Helvētiī, ubi eos tū constitueris atque esse volueris: sīn bello persequi persevērābis. reminiscere [inquit] et veteris incommodī populī Romānī et prīstinae virtūtis Helvētiorum. Quod improviso unum pagum adortus es, cum ei qui flümen tränsierant suis auxilium ferre non possent, në ob eam rem aut tuae māgnō opere virtūtī tribueris. aut nos despēxeris: nos ita ā patribus māi oribusque nostrīs didicimus, ut magis virtūte quam dolō contendamus, aut însidiis nitamur. Quare noli committere, ut hic locus ubi constitimus ex calamitate populi Rōmānī et internecione exercitūs nomen capiat, aut memoriam prodat.

II. INTERMEDIATE CLAUSES.

840. A Subordinate clause takes the Subjunctive, (I) when it expresses the thought of some other person than the speaker or writer (*Informal Indirect Discourse*), or (2) when it is an integral part of a Subjunctive clause or equivalent Infinitive (*Attraction*).

I. Informal Indirect Discourse.

- **841.** (RULE 86.) A subordinate clause takes the subjunctive when it expresses the thought of some other person than the writer or speaker. Thus,—
- a. In Subordinate clauses in formal indirect discourse (§ 336). So also in Informal Indirect Discourse in the following cases:—
- . b. When the clause depends upon another containing a wish, a command, or a question expressed indirectly, though not strictly in the form of Indirect Discourse: as,—

- animal sentit quid sit quod deceat (Off. i. 14), an animal feels what it is that is fit.
- hunc sibi ex animō scrūpulum, quī sē diēs noctēsque stimulet āc pungat, ut ēvellātis postulat (Rosc. Am. 6), he begs you to pluck from his heart this doubt that goads and stings him day and night.
- c. When the main clause of a quotation is merged in the verb of saying, or some modifier of it: as,
 - sī quid dē hīs rēbus dīcere vellet, fēcī potestātem (Cat. iii. 11), if he wished to say anything about these matters, I gave him a chance.
 - tulit de caede quae in Appia via facta esset (Milo 15), he passed a law concerning the murder which (in the language of the bill) took place in the Appian Way.
- d. When a reason or an explanatory fact is introduced by a relative or by quod (rarely quia) (see § 321). Thus,—
 - Paetus omnēs libros quos pater suus reliquisset mihi donāvit (Att. ii. 1, 12),
 Patus presented me all the books which (he said) his father had left.

REMARK. — Under this head even what the speaker himself thought elsewhere may have the Subjunctive. So with quod the verb of saying may be in the Subjunctive. (Especially non quia, etc. See § 321. Rem.)

2. Subjunctive of Integral Part (Attraction).

842. (RULE 87.) A clause depending on a Subjunctive clause or an equivalent Infinitive will itself take the Subjunctive if regarded as an integral part of that clause: as,—

imperat, dum rēs adiūdicētur, hominem ut adservent: cum iūdicātum sit, ad sē addūcant (Verr. iii. 55), he orders them, till the affair should be decided, to keep the man; when he is judged, to bring him to him. mos est Athēnīs laudārī in contione eos quī sint in proeliīs interfectī (Or. 151), it is the custom at Athens for those to be publicly eulogized who have been slain in battle. [Here laudārī = ut laudentur.]

- a. But a dependent clause, closely connected grammatically with a Subjunctive or Infinitive clause, may still take the Indicative, if it is not regarded as a necessary logical part of that clause: as,
 - ne hostes, quod tantum multitudine poterant, suos circumvenire possent (B. G. ii. 8), lest the enemy, because they were so strong in numbers, should be able to surround his men.

NOTE. — The use of the Indicative serves to emphasize the fact, as true. But often no distinction between the two moods is perceptible.

IMPORTANT RULES OF SYNTAX.

- 1. A noun used to describe another, and denoting the same person or thing, agrees with it in Case (§ 183).
- 2. Adjectives, adjective pronouns, and participles agree with their nouns in gender, number, and case (§ 186).
- 3. A Relative pronoun agrees with its Antecedent in *gender* and *number*, but its *case* depends on the construction of the clause in which it stands (§ 198).
- 4. A Finite Verb agrees with its Subject in *number* and *person* (§ 204).
- 5. Superlatives (more rarely comparatives) denoting order and succession also medius, cēterus, relicus usually designate not what object, but what part of it, is meant (§ 193).
- 6. The Personal Pronouns have two forms for the genitive plural, that in -tim being used partitively, and that in -ti oftenest objectively (§ 194.b).
- 7. The Reflexive pronoun (sē), and usually the corresponding possessive (suus), are used in some part of the predicate to refer to the subject of the sentence or clause (§ 196).
- 8. The Possessive Pronouns are used instead of the genitive of a personal pronoun: (1) always instead of the possessive genitive, (2) rarely instead of an objective genitive (§ 197. a).
- 9. A Possessive representing a genitive may have a genitive in apposition (§ 197. c).
- 10. Adverbs are used to modify verbs, adjectives, and other adverbs (§ 207).
- 11. A question of simple fact, requiring the answer YES or NO, is formed by adding the enclitic -ne to the emphatic word (§ 210. a).
- 12. When the enclitic -ne is added to a negative word, as in nonne, an affirmative answer is expected. The particle num suggests a negative answer (§ 210. c).

- 13. The subject of a finite verb is in the NOMINATIVE (§ 173. a).
- 14. A noun used to limit or define another, and not denoting the same person or thing, is put in the GENITIVE (§ 213).
- 15. The Subjective Genitive is used with a noun to denote (1) the Author or Owner, (2) the Source or the Material, (3) the Quality (§ 214).
- 16. Words denoting a Part are followed by the Genitive of the Whole to which the part belongs (*Partitive Genitive*, § 216).
- 17. Nouns of action, agency, and feeling govern the genitive of the object (Objective Genitive, § 217).
- 18. Adjectives denoting desire, knowledge, memory, fulness, power, sharing, guilt, and their opposites; verbals in āx, and participles in -ns, when used as adjectives, govern the Genitive (§ 218. a, b).
- 19. Verbs of remembering and forgetting, take the Genitive of the object when they are used of a continued state of mind, but the Accusative when used of a single act (§ 219).
- 20. Verbs of accusing, condemning, and acquitting take the Genitive of the Charge or Penalty (§ 220).
- 21. The DATIVE is used of the object indirectly affected by an action (*Indirect Object*, § 224).
- 22. Most verbs signifying to favor, help, please, trust, and their contraries; also, to believe, persuade, command, obey, serve, resist, envy, threaten, pardon, and spare, take the Dative (§ 227).
- 23. Most verbs compounded with ad, ante, con, in, inter, ob, post, prae, pro, sub, super, and some with circum, take the Dative of the indirect object (§ 228).
- 24. Many verbs of taking away, and the like, take the Dative (especially of a person) instead of the Ablative of Separation (§ 229).
- 25. The passive of intransitive verbs that govern the dative can be used only *impersonally* (§ 146. d). The dative is retained (cf. § 225. e).

- 26. The Dative is used with esse and similar words to denote Possession (§ 231).
- 27. The Dative of the Agent is used with the Gerundive, to denote the person on whom the necessity rests (§ 232).
- 28. The Dative is used to denote the Purpose or End, often with another Dative of the person or thing affected (§ 233. a).
- 29. The Dative is used with adjectives (and a few adverbs) of fitness, nearness, service, inclination, and their opposites (§ 234. a).
- 30. The Dative is often required, not by any particular word, but by the general meaning of the sentence (Dative of Reference, § 235).
- 31. The Direct Object of a transitive verb is put in the Accusa-TIVE (§ 237).
- 32. A neuter verb often takes an accusative of kindred meaning (§ 238).
- 33. Verbs of naming, choosing, appointing, making, esteeming, showing, and the like, may take a Predicate Accusative along with the direct object (§ 239. a).
- 34. Transitive verbs compounded with prepositions sometimes take (in addition to the direct object) a Secondary Object, originally governed by the preposition (§ 239. b).
- 35. Verbs of asking and teaching may take two Accusatives, one of the person, and the other of the thing (§ 239. c).
- 36. The subject of an Infinitive is in the Accusative (§ 173. 2).
- 37. Duration of Time and Extent of Space are expressed by the Accusative (§ 240. e).
- 38. Words signifying separation or privation are followed by the Ablative, with or without a preposition (Ablative of Separation, § 243).
- 39. Opus and usus, signifying *need*, are followed by the Ablative (§ 243. e).
- 40. The Ablative, with or without a preposition, is used to denote

- the source from which anything is derived or the material of which it consists (§ 244).
- 41. The Ablative, with or without a preposition, is used to express cause (§ 245).
- 42. Dignus and indignus; contentus, laetus, praeditus, etc., take the Ablative (§ 245. a).
- 43. The Voluntary Agent after a passive verb is put in the Ablative with a or ab (\$ 246).
- 44. The Comparative degree is followed by the Ablative (signifying THAN) without quam (§ 247).
- 45. The Comparative may be followed by quam, than. When quam is used, the two things compared are put in the same case (§ 247. a).
- 46. The manner of an action is denoted by the Ablative, usually with cum, unless a limiting adjective is used with the noun (§ 248).
- 47. Accompaniment is denoted by the Ablative, regularly with cum (§ 248. a).
- 48. The Ablative is used to denote the *means* or *instrument* of an action (§ 248. c. 1).
- 49. The deponents, utor, fruor, fungor, potior, and vescor, with several of their compounds, govern the Ablative (§ 249).
- 50. With comparatives and words implying comparison the Ablative is used to denote the degree of difference (§ 250).
- 51. Quality is denoted by the Ablative with a modifier, usually an adjective or limiting genitive (§ 251).
- 52. Price is expressed by the Ablative (§ 252).
- 53. The Ablative of Specification denotes that in respect to which anything is or is done (§ 253).
- 54. A noun or pronoun, with a participle, may be put in the Ablative, to define the time or circumstances of an action (Ablative Absolute).
 - An adjective, or a second noun, may take the place of the participle in the ablative absolute construction (§ 255. a).

- 55. Time when, or within which, is expressed by the Ablative; time how long by the Accusative (§ 256).
- 56. The place from which is denoted by the Ablative with ab, de, or ex; the place to which (the end of motion) by the Accusative with ad or in (\$ 258.c).
 - But names of towns or small islands from which, as also domus and rus, are put in the Ablative without a preposition ($\S 258.a$).
 - So also names of towns or small islands to which, as also domus and $r\overline{u}s$, are put in the Accusative without a preposition (\S 258. b).
- 57. The place where is denoted by the Ablative with the preposition in (Locative Ablative); but names of towns and small islands are put in the Locative Case (§ 258.c).
 - The Locative Case is also preserved in domi, belli, militiae, humi, foris, rūri, terrā marīque (§ 258. d).
- 58. The Infinitive, with or without a subject accusative, may be used with *est* and similar verbs (1) as the *subject*, (2) in *apposition* with the subject, or (3) as a *predicate nominative* (§ 270).
- 59. Verbs which imply another action of the same subject to complete their meaning take the Infinitive without a subject accusative, (Complementary Infinitive, § 271).
- 60. The Infinitive, with subject accusative, is used with verbs and other expressions of knowing, thinking, telling, and perceiving (Indirect Discourse, see § 272).
- 61. The Infinitive is often used for the Imperfect Indicative, in narration and takes a subject in the Nominative (Historical Infinitive, § 275).
- 62. SEQUENCE OF TENSES. In complex sentences, a primary tense in the main clause is followed by the Present or Perfect Subjunctive; a secondary tense by the Imperfect or Pluperfect (§ 286).
- 63. The tenses of the Infinitive denote time as present, past, or future with respect to the time of the verb on which they depend (§ 288).

- 64. Participles denote time as present, past, or future with respect to the time of the verb in their clause (§ 290).
- 65. The GERUND and the GERUNDIVE are used, in the oblique cases, in many of the constructions of nouns (§ 297).

For particulars, see §§ 298-301.

- 66. The Former Supine (in -um) is used after verbs of motion to express Purpose (§ 302).
- 67. The Latter Supine (in -u) is used only with a few adjectives, with the nouns fas, nefas, and opus, and rarely with verbs, to denote an action in reference to which the quality is asserted (§ 303).
- 68. The Hortatory Subjunctive is used to express an exhortation, a command, a concession, or a condition (§ 266).
- 69. The Subjunctive is used to express a wish. The present tense denotes the wish as possible, the imperfect as unaccomplished in present time, the pluperfect as unaccomplished in past time (Optative Subjunctive, § 267).
- 70. The Subjunctive is used in questions implying doubt, indignation, or an impossibility of the thing being done (Deliberative Subjunctive, § 268).
- 71. Prohibition is regularly expressed in classic prose (1) by nē with the second person of the Perfect Subjunctive,
 (2) by nōlī with the Infinitive, (3) by cave with the Present or Perfect Subjunctive (§ 269. a).
- 72. The Potential Subjunctive is used to denote an action not as actually performed, but as possible (§ 311. a).
- 73. In both Protasis and Apodosis (1) simple conditions take the present and past tenses of the Indicative; (2) future conditions take the future and future perfect Indicative and the present and perfect Subjunctive; (3) conditions contrary to fact take the imperfect and pluperfect Subjunctive (see §§ 306-311).
- 74. Dum, modo, dummodo, and tantum, introducing a Proviso, take the Subjunctive (§ 314).
- 75. Final clauses take the Subjunctive introduced by ut (uti),

- negative ne (ut ne), or by a Relative (pronoun or adverb) (§ 317).
- 76. Consecutive clauses take the Subjunctive introduced by ut, so that (negative, ut non), or by a Relative (pronoun or adverb) (§ 319).
- 77. A Relative clause with the Subjunctive expresses a characteristic of the antecedent (§ 320).
- 78. Dignus, indignus, aptus, and idoneus take a clause of result with a relative (rarely with ut) (\S 320. f).
- 79. The Causal Particles quod, quia, and quoniam take the Indicative when the reason is given on the authority of the *speaker* or *writer*; the Subjunctive when the reason is given on the authority of *another* (§ 321).
- 80. Cum TEMPORAL, meaning when, takes the Imperfect and Pluperfect in the Subjunctive, other tenses in the Indicative (§ 325).
- 81. Cum CAUSAL or CONCESSIVE takes the Subjunctive (§ 326).
- 82. An Indirect Question takes its verb in the Subjunctive (§ 334).
- 83. In the INDIRECT DISCOURSE the main clause of a Declaratory Sentence is put in the Infinitive with Subject Accusative. All subordinate clauses take the Subjunctive (§ 336.2).
- 84. In the Indirect Discourse a real question is generally put in the Subjunctive; a rhetorical question in the Infinitive (§ 338).
- 85. All Imperative forms of speech take the Subjunctive in Indirect Discourse (§ 339).
- 86. A Subordinate clause takes the Subjunctive when it expresses the thought of some other person than the writer or speaker (*Informal Indirect Discourse*, § 341).
- 87. A clause depending on a Subjunctive clause or an equivalent Infinitive will itself take the Subjunctive if regarded as an *integral part* of that clause (Attraction, § 342).

6. ORDER OF WORDS.

343. The Subject usually stands first in the sentence, the Predicate last. Thus, —

Pausāniās Lacedaemonius māgnus homō sed varius in omnī genere vītae fuit.

The verb is usually placed *last of all*, after all its modifiers. But it is often made *last but one*, followed by some single word of the predicate.

- **844.** In *connected discourse* the word most prominent in the speaker's mind comes first, and so on in order of prominence, corresponding with the emphasis given in English by a graduated stress of voice.
- a. In any phrase the determining and most significant word comes first: as,
 - 1. Adjective and Noun: -

omnēs hominēs decet, every man ought (opposed to some who do not). Lūcius Catilīna nobilī genere nātus fuit māgnā vī et animī et corporis sed ingenio malo prāvoque (Sall. Cat. 5), Lucius Catiline was born of a NOBLE family, with GREAT force of mind and body, but with a NATURE that was evil and depraved. [Here the adjectives in the first part are the emphatic words, no antithesis between the nouns being as yet thought of; but in the second branch the noun is meant to be opposed to those before mentioned, and so takes the prominent place.]

2. Word with modifying case: -

lacrimā nihil citius arēscit (Inv. i. 109), nothing dries quicker than a TEAR. nēmō ferē laudis cupidus (De Or. i. 14), hardly any one desirous of GLORY (cf. Manil. 7, avidī laudis, EAGER for glory).

b. Numeral adjectives, adjectives of quantity, demonstrative, relative, and interrogative pronouns, and adverbs usually precede the word or words to which they belong: as,—

cum aliqua perturbatione (Off. i. 137), with some disturbance. hoc uno praestamus (De Or. i. 32), in this one thing we excel. ceterae fere artes, the other arts.

- c. When sum is used as the Substantive verb (see § 172. note), it regularly stands first, or at any rate before its subject: as,
 - est viri māgnī pūnīre sontēs (Off. i. 82), it is the duty of a great man to punish the guilty.
- d.-The verb may come first, or have a prominent position either (1) because the *idea* in it is emphatic: as,
 - dicebat idem Cotta (Off. ii. 59), Cotta used to SAY the same thing (opposed to others' boasting).
 - idem fēcit adulēscēns M. Antonius (id. ii. 49), the same thing was DONE by M. Antonius in his youth. [Opposed to dīxī just before.]
 - (2) or because the statement of the idea is emphatic: as, —
 - nisi forte erunt digni calamitäte (Off. ii. 62), unless perchance they REALLY DESERVE their misfortune.
 - praesertim cum scribat (Panaetius) (id. iii. 8), especially when he DOES SAY (in his books). [Opposed to something omitted by him.]
 - (3) or because the tense only is emphatic: as, -
 - fuimus Trões, fuit Ilium (Æn. ii. 325), we have ceased to be Trojans, Troy is now no more.
- e. Often the connection of two emphatic phrases is brought about by giving the precedence to the most prominent part of each and leaving the less prominent to follow in inconspicuous places: as,
 - plūrēs solent esse causae (Off. i. 28), there are USUALLY SEVERAL reasons. quōs āmīsimus cīvīs eōs Mārtis vīs perculit (Marc. 17), WHAT fellow-citizens we have LOST, have been stricken down by the violence of war. māximās tibi omnēs grātiās agimus (Marc. 33), we ALL render you the WARMEST thanks.
- f. Antithesis between two pairs of ideas is indicated either (1) by placing the pairs in the same order (anaphora) or (2) in exactly the opposite order (chiasmus).
 - rērum copia verborum copiam gignit (De Or. iii. 125), ABUNDANCE of MATTER produces COPIOUSNESS of EXPRESSION.
 - (2) leges supplició improbós afficiunt, defendunt ac tuentur bonos (Leg. ii. 13), the laws VISIT PUNISHMENTS upon the WICKED, but the GOOD they DEFEND and PROTECT.
- g. A modifier of a phrase or some part of it is often embodied within the phrase (cf. α): as,
 - dē commūnī hominum memoriā (Tusc. i. 59), in regard to the UNIVERSAL memory of man.

- h. A favorite order with the poets is the *interlocked*, by which the attribute of one pair comes between the parts of another: as,—
 et superiectō pavidae nātārunt aequore dāmae (Hor. Od. i. 2. 11).
- i. Frequently unimportant words follow in the train of more emphatic ones with which they are grammatically connected, and so acquire a prominence out of proportion to their importance: as,
 - dictitābat sē hortulōs aliquōs emere velle (Off. iii. 58), gave out that he wanted to buy some gardens. [Here aliquōs is less emphatic than emere, but precedes it on account of the emphasis on hortulōs.]
- j. The copula is generally felt to be of so little importance that it may come in anywhere where it sounds well; but usually under cover of more emphatic words: as,
 - consul ego quaesīvī, cum vos mihi essētis in consilio (R. P. iii. 28), as consul I held an investigation in which you attended me in council. falsum est id totum (id. ii. 28), that is all false.
 - k. Many expressions have acquired an invariable order: as,—rēs pūblica; populus Rōmānus; honōris causā; pāce tantī virī.
- Note. Thus, senātus populusque Romānus (S. P. Q. R.) originally stated with emphasis the official bodies, but became fixed so as to be the only permissible form of expression.
- 1. The Romans had a fondness for emphasizing persons, so that a name or a pronoun often stands in an unduly emphatic place: as,—
 - [dixit] vēnālīs quidem sē hortos non habēre (Off. iii. 58), [said] that he didn't have any gardens for sale, to be sure.
 - m. Kindred words, as in figūra etymologica, often come together: ita sēnsim sine sēnsū aetās senēscit (C. M. 38), thus gradually, without being perceived, man's life grows old.

SPECIAL RULES.

- 845. The following are special rules of arrangement:
- a. 1. Prepositions (except tenus and versus) regularly precede their nouns; 2. but a monosyllabic preposition is often placed between a noun and its adjective or limiting genitive: as,
 - quem ad modum; quam ob rem; māgnō cum metū; omnibus cum cōpiīs; nūlla in rē (cf. § 344. i).
- b. Itaque regularly comes first in its sentence or clause; enim, autem, vērō, quoque, never first, but usually second, sometimes third

if the second word is emphatic; quidem, never first, but after the emphatic word; ne... quidem include the emphatic word or words.

- c. Inquam, inquit are always used parenthetically, following one or more words. So, often, crēdō, opinor, and in poetry precor.
- d. The negative precedes the word it especially affects; but if it belongs to no one word in particular, it generally precedes the verb; if it is especially emphatic, it begins the sentence.
- e. In the arrangement of clauses, the relative clause often comes first in Latin, and, if so, usually contains the antecedent noun: as,—quōs āmīsimus cīvīs, eōs Mārtis vīs perculit (Marc. 17), those citizens whom we have lost, etc.

STRUCTURE OF THE PERIOD.

NOTE.—Latin, unlike modern languages, expresses the relation of words to each other by *inflection* rather than by *position*. Hence its structure not only admits of great variety in the arrangement of words, but is especially favorable to that form of sentence which is called a Period. In a period, the sense is expressed by the sentence as a whole, and is held in suspense till the delivery of the last word.

An English sentence does not often exhibit this form of structure. It was imitated, sometimes with great skill and beauty, by many of the earlier writers of English prose; but its effect is better seen in poetry, in such a passage as the following:—

"High on a throne of royal state, which far
Outshone the wealth of Ormus and of Ind,
Or where the gorgeous East, with richest hand,
Showers on her kings barbaric pearl and gold,
Satan exalted sat."—Paradise Lost, Book II. 1-5.

But in argument or narrative, the best English writers more commonly give short, clear sentences, each distinct from the rest, and saying one thing by itself. In Latin, on the contrary, the story or argument is viewed as a whole; and the logical relation among all its parts is carefully indicated. Hence,—

- **346.** In the structure of the Period, the following rules are to be observed:—
- a. In general the main subject or object is put in the main clause, not in a subordinate one (according to § 344): as,—

Hannibal cum recēnsuisset auxilia Gādēs profectus est, when Hannibal had reviewed, etc.

- b. Clauses are usually arranged in the order of prominence in the mind of the speaker; so, usually, cause before result; purpose, manner, and the like, before the act.
- c. In co-ordinate clauses, the copulative conjunctions are frequently omitted (asyndeton). In such cases the connection is made clear by some antithesis indicated by the position of words.
- d. A change of subject, when required, is marked by the introduction of a pronoun, if the new subject has already been mentioned. But such change is often purposely avoided by a change in structure, the less important being merged in the more important by the aid of participles or of subordinate phrases: as,
 - quem ut barbarī incendium effūgisse vīdērunt, tēlīs ēminus ēmīssīs interfēcērunt, when the barbarians saw that he had escaped, THEY threw darts at HIM and killed HIM.
 - celeriter confecto negotio, in hiberna legiones reverterunt, the matter was soon finished, AND the legions, etc.
- e. So the repetition of a noun, or the substitution of a pronoun for it, is avoided, unless a different case is required: as,
 - dolorem sī non potero frangere occultābo, if I cannot conquer the pain, I will hide IT. [Cf. if I cannot conquer, I will hide the pain.]
- f. The Romans were careful to close a period with an agreeable succession of long and short syllables. Thus, —

quod scīs nihil prodest, quod nescīs multum obest (Or. 166), what you know is of no use, what you do not know does great harm.

Lower continuoud n'i le short.

Suprang cara

Lower pre d'in Continuation long.

Lower president stranger policies d'en 2

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PART THIRD.—PROSODY (RULES OF VERSE).

ehendus and the

1. OUANTITY.

1. General Rules.

847. The following are General Rules of Quantity (cf. § 18):—

a. Vowel. A vowel before another vowel or h is short: as, via, trăhō.

EXCEPTIONS. 1. In the genitive form in its long, except usually in alterius. Thus, utrius, nullius. It is, however, sometimes made short in verse (\S 83. b).

2. In the genitive and dative singular of the fifth declension, e is long between two vowels: as, dei; but it is short in fidei, rei, spei; a is long before i in the old genitive of the first declension: as, aulāi.

3. In the conjugation of fio, i is long except when followed by er. Thus, fio, fiebam, fram, but fieri, fierem; so, also, fit.

4. In many Greek words the vowel in Latin represents a long vowel or diphthong, and retains its original long quantity: as, **Troes** (Τρῶες), Thalia (Θαλεῖα), hētošs (ἤρωας), θετ (ἄηρ).

5. In then and dius, and sometimes in Diana and one, the first

vowel is long.

b. DIPHTHONG. A Diphthong is long: as, foedus, cui, deinde.

EXCEPTION. The preposition prae in compounds is generally shortened before a vowel: as, prae-ustis (Æn. vii. 524), prae-eunte (id. v. 186).

. c. CONTRACTION. A vowel formed by contraction (crasis) is long: as, nil, from nihil; currus, genitive for curruis.

But often two syllables are united by Synæresis without contraction: as when parietibus is pronounced paryetibus.

d. Position. A vowel, though short, followed by two consonants or a double consonant, makes a long syllable: as, adventus, cortex.

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[§ 348.

But if the two consonants are a mute followed by 1 or r, the syllable may be either long or short (common); as, alacris or alacris; patris or patris.

NOTE 1.—Any vowel before i consonant makes a long syllable (except in bliugis, quadriugis).

Note 2.—The compounds of iacio, though written with one i, commonly retain the long vowel of the prepositions with which they are compounded, as if before a consonant, and lengthen the short as if by Position. (But how the syllables were pronounced is uncertain.) Thus,—

obicis hosti (at the end of a hexameter, Æn. iv. 549).
inicit et saltü (at the beginning of a hexameter, Æn. ix. 552).
pröice tēla manū (at the beginning of a hexameter, Æn. vi. 836).

REMARK.—The y or w sound resulting from synaresis has the effect of a consonant in making position: as, abietis (abyetis), fluviorum (fluvyorum).

Conversely, when the semivowel becomes a vowel, position is lost: as, silvae, for silvae.

Final Syllables.

- **348.** The Quantity of Final Syllables is determined by the following Rules:—
- 1. Monosyllables ending in a vowel are long: as, mē, tū, hī, nē. The attached particles -ně, -quě, -vě, -cě, -ptě, and rě- (rěd-) are short; sē- is long. Thus, sēcēdit, exercitumquě rědūcit. But re- is often long in rēligiō (relligiō), rētulī (rettulī), rēpulī (reppulī).
- 2. Nouns and adjectives of one syllable are long: as, sol, os (oris), bos, par, vis.
- \Exceptions. cor (sometimes long), fel, lac, mel, os (ossis), vir, tot, quot.
- 3. Most monosyllabic Particles are short: as, an, in, cis, nec. But ac, cras, cur, en, non, quin, sin with adverbs in c: as, hic, huc, sic are long.
- 4. Final a in words declined by cases is short, except in the ablative singular of the first declension; in all other words final a is long. Thus, ea stella (nom.), cum ea stella (abl.); frustra, voca (imperat.), postea, triginta.

EXCEPTIONS. ētā, itā, quiā, putā (suppose): and, in late use, trīgintā, etc.

- 5. Final e is short, as in nube, ducite, saepe. Except —
- 1. In nouns of the fifth declension: as, fide (also fame), hodie (hoi die), quare (qua re).
 - 2. In Greek neuters plural of the second declension: as, cētē.
- 3. In adverbs formed from adjectives of the first and second declension, with others of like form: as, altē, miserē, apertē, saepissimē. So, ferē, fermē, probably of same origin.
 - 4. In the imperative singular of the second conjugation: as, vide.

Exceptions. To 3: beně, malě; inferně, superně. To 4: sometimes, cavě, habě, tacě, valě, vidě.

6. Final i is long: as in turri, fili, audi.

But it is common in mihi, tibi, sibi, ibi, ubi; and short in nisi, quasi, cui (when making two syllables), and in Greek vocatives, as Alexi.

7. Final o is common; but long in datives and ablatives, also, almost invariably, in verbs, and in nouns of the third declension.

Exceptions. cito, modo (adverb), ilico, profecto, dummodo, immo, ego, duo, octo.

- 8. Final u is long. Final y is short.
- 9. Final as, es, os, are long; final is, us, ys, are short; as, nefās, rūpēs, servos (acc.), honos; hostis, amīcus, Tethys.

EXCEPTIONS. as is short in Greek plural accusatives, as lampadas; and in anas.

es is short in nouns of the third declension (lingual) having a short vowel in the stem 1: as, mīlēs (-ĭtis,), obsēs (-ĭdis), — except ablēs, arīēs, pariēs, pēs; in the present of esse (ĕs, adĕs); in the preposition penēs, and in the plural of Greek nouns, as hēroĕs, lampadĕs.

os is short in compos, impos; in the Greek nominative ending, as barbitos; also, in the old nominative ending of the second declension, as servos (later, servus).

is in plural cases is long, as in bonīs, nobīs, vobīs, omnīs (accusative plural).

is is long in fis, sis, vis (with quivis, etc.), velis, mālis, nōlis; in the second person singular of the fourth conjugation, as audīs and sometimes in the forms in -eris (perfect subjunctive).

¹ The quantity of the stem-vowel may be seen in the genitive singular.

us is long (by contraction) in the genitive singular and nominative, accusative, and vocative plural of the fourth declension; and in nouns of the third declension having $\bar{\mathbf{u}}$ (long) in the stem: as, virtus (- $\bar{\mathbf{u}}$ tis), inc $\bar{\mathbf{u}}$ s (- $\bar{\mathbf{u}}$ tis). But, pecus, - $\bar{\mathbf{u}}$ tis.

10. Of other final syllables, those ending in a consonant, except -c, are short. Thus, amăt, amātūr; but, istūc, ālēc.

Exceptions. doněc, făc, něc, sometimes híc; āēr, aethēr, crātēr, liēn, splēn.

3. Penultimate Syllables.

849. A noun or adjective is said to *increase*, when in any case it has more syllables than in the nominative singular.

A verb is said to increase, when in any part it has more syllables than in the stem. Thus, amā-tis (stem, amā-), tegi-tis (stem, tege-), capi-unt (stem, capi-).

In such words as stellārum, corpŏris, amātis, tegītis, the penultimate syllable is called the *increment*. In itinĕrībus, amāvĕrītis, the syllables with the quantities marked are called the first, second, and third increments of the noun or verb.

Note. — In such words as Iuppiter, Iovis; senex, senis, the syllables whose vowel-quantity is marked are called increments. These forms must be referred to lost nominatives from the same stems. So itineribus has really only two increments as from †itinus.

850. In increments of Nouns and Adjectives, a and o are generally long; (e, i, u, y, generally short: as,—

aetās, aetātis; honor, honoris; servos, servorum; opus, operis; carmen, carminis; murmur, murmūris; pecus, pecudis; chlamys, chlamydis. Exceptions are—

a: short in baccar (-ăris), hēpar (-ătis), iubar (-ăris), lār (-lăris), mās (măris), nectar (-ăris), pār (păris), sāl (sălis), vas (vădis), daps (dăpis), fax (făcis), anthrax (-ăcis).

o: short in neuters of the third declension (except os, oris): as, corpus (-oris); also in arbor (-oris), scrobs (scrobis), ops (opis), bos (bovis), memor (-oris), Iuppiter (Iovis), Hector (-oris), and compounds of -pus (as, tripus, -podis).

e: long in increments of fifth declension: as, diēs, diēi; also in hērēs (-ēdis), lēx (lēgis), locuplēs (-ētis), mercēs (-ēdis), plēbs (plēbis), quiēs (-ētis), rēx (rēgis), vēr (vēris), crātēr (-ēris). But see § 347. 2.

i: long in most nouns and adjectives in ix: as, fēlīcis, rādīcis (except filix, nix, strix); also in dīs (dītis), glīs (glīris), līs (lītis), vīs (vīrēs), Quirītēs, Samnītēs.

u: long in forms from nouns in -ūs: as, palūs, palūdis; tellūs, tellūris; virtūs, virtūtis; also in lūx, lūcis; [frūx], frūgis; fūr, fūris.

- 851. In the increment of Verbs the characteristic vowels are as follows:—
 - 1. In the first conjugation a: as, amare, amatur.
 - 2. In the second conjugation 5: as, monere, monetur.
 - 3. In the third conjugation ĕ, ĭ: as, tegĕre, tegĭtur.
 - 4. In the fourth conjugation i: as, audire, auditur.

EXCEPTION. do and its compounds have a: as, dare, circumdabat.

- a. In other verbal increments (not stem-vowels) -
- a is always long: as, moneāris, tegāmus.
- e is long: as, tegēbam, audiēbar.

Note. — But e is short before -ram, -rim, -rō; in the future personal endings -bĕris, -bĕre; and sometimes in the perfect -ĕrunt (as, stĕtĕruntque comae, Æn. ii. 774).

i is long in forms which follow the analogy of the fourth conjugation: as, petīvī, lacessītus (in others, short: as, monītus); also in the subjunctive present of esse and velle (sīmus, velīmus); and (rarely) in the endings -rīmus, -rītis. It is short in the future forms amābītis, etc.

- o is found only in imperatives, and is long: as, monētote, etc. u is short in sumus, volumus, quaesumus; in the Supine and its derivatives it is long: as, soluturus.
- b. Perfects and Supines of two syllables lengthen the first syllable: as, iūvi, iūtum (iūvō), vidi, visum (videō); fūgi (fūgiō).

EXCEPTIONS. blbi, dědi, fídi, soidi, stěti, stiti, tůli; — oitum, dåtum, itum, litum, quitum, rătum, rūtum, sătum, situm, statum. In some compounds of stō, stātum is found long, as prōstātum.

- c. In reduplicated perfects the vowel of the reduplication is short; the following syllable is, also, usually short: as, cěcidī (cădō), dĭdĭcī (discō), pŭpŭgī (pungō), cŭcurrī (currō), tětendī (tendō), mŏmordī (mordeō). But, cěcīdī from caedō, pepēdī from pēdō.
- 852. The following terminations are generally preceded by a long vowel:—
 - 1. -brum, -crum, -trum: as, lăvācrum, dēlūbrum, vērātrum.
 - 2. -na, -ne, -nis: as, carîna, māne, inānis.
 - 3. -re, -ris, -ta, -tis: as, altāre, sălūtāris, mŏnēta, immītis.
- 858. The following terminations are preceded by a short vowel:—
- -cus, -dus (with some exceptions), -lus: as, rūsticus, călidus, glădiŏlus.
- 2. -tās (in nouns), -ter and -tus (in adverbs): as, cīvītās, fortīter, pēnītus.
- 3. -culus, -cellus, -lentus, -tūdō: as, fascicŭlus, ŏcellus, lūcŭlentus, māgnitūdō.
 - 854. Rules for the quantity of Derivatives are —
- a. Forms from the same STEM regularly have the same quantity: as, amo, amavisti; genus, generis.
- b. Compounds retain the quantity of the words which compose them: as, oc-cidō (cadō), oc-cidō (caedō), in-icus (aecus).

RHYTHM.

I. Measures.

855. Rhythm consists in the recurrence in musical sound of accent at regular intervals. These intervals are called MEASURES OF FEET.

The most natural measures of musical time consist of either two or three equal parts. But the ancients also distinguished measures of five parts.

REMARK. — In poetry these intervals are taken up by enunciated syllables which in Latin have a definite length or quantity.

- a. The unit of length in Prosody is one short syllable. This is called a MORA. It is represented by the sign o, or may be represented in musical notation by the quaver $\binom{p}{k}$.
- b. A long syllable is regularly equal to two *moræ*, and is represented by the sign _, or may be represented by the *crotchet* ().
- 856. The measures most frequently employed in Latin verse, together with their musical notation, are the following:
 - a. Triple or Unequal Measures ($\frac{3}{8}$).
 - 1. TROCHEE ($\angle \cup = \nearrow$): as, regts.
 - 2. IAMBUS ($\smile \angle = \bigcirc)$: as, dŭcēs.
 - 3. Tribrach ($\checkmark \circ \circ = \bullet \circ$): as, hominis.
 - b. Double or Equal Measures $(\frac{2}{4})$.
 - I. DACTYL $(\angle \cup \cup = \not \models \not \models)$: as, consults.
 - 2. Anapæst ($\lor \lor \angle = \bigcirc \nearrow \nearrow$): as, mönitös.
 - 3. Spondee (__ = | |): as, rēgēs.

For the more complex measures, see larger grammar.

857. In most cases measures of the same time may be substituted for each other, a long syllable taking the place of two short ones, or two short ones the place of one long one. Thus, a Spondee (---) may take the place of a Dactyl (---).

2. The Musical Accent.

- 858. That part of the measure which receives the stress of voice (the musical accent) is called the Thesis; the unaccented part is called the Arsis.
- a. The stress of voice laid upon the Thesis is called the ICTUS (beat). It is marked thus: $\angle \cup \cup$.

b. The ending of a word within a measure is called CAESURA. When this coincides with a rhetorical pause, it is called the Caesura of the verse, and is of main importance as affecting the melody or rhythm

3. VERSIFICATION.

THE VERSE.

- 859. A single line of poetry that is, a series of measures (feet) set in a known order is called a Verse.
- a. A verse lacking a syllable at the end is called CATALECTIC, that is, having a pause to fill the measure; when the end syllable is not lacking, the verse is called ACATALECTIC, and has no such pause.
- b. To divide the verse into its appropriate measures, according to the rules of quantity and versification, is called scanning or scansion (scānsiō, from scandō, a climbing or advance by steps).

REMARK. — In reading verse rhythmically, care should be taken to preserve the measure or time of the syllables, but at the same time not to destroy or confuse the words themselves, as is often done in scanning.

c. In scanning, a vowel or diphthong at the end of a word (unless an interjection) is partially suppressed when the next word begins with a vowel or with h. This is called ELISION.

In reading it is usual entirely to suppress elided syllables. Strictly, however, they should be sounded lightly.

d. A final -m, with the preceding vowel, is suppressed in like manner when the next word begins with a vowel or h: this is called ECTHLIPSIS: as,

- e. Elision is sometimes omitted when a word ending in a vowel has a special emphasis, or is succeeded by a pause. This omission is called HIATUS. In such cases the final vowel is sometimes shortened.
- f. A final syllable, regularly short, is sometimes lengthened before a pause: it is then said to be long by Diastolē: as, —

nostrorum obruimur, — oriturque miserrima caedēs.

g. The last syllable of a verse may be either long or short.

(

FORMS OF VERSE.

860. A verse receives its name from its dominant or fundamental measure; as, Dactylic, Iambic, Trochaic, Anapastic; and from the number of measures (single or double) which it contains: as, Hexameter, Tetrameter, Trimeter, Dimeter.

REMARK. — Trochaic, Iambic, and Anapæstic verses are measured not by single feet, but by pairs (dipodia), so that six Iambi make a Trimeter.

861. A Stanza, or Strophe, consists of a definite number of verses ranged in a fixed order.

1. Dactylic Hexameter.

862. The Dactylic Hexameter, or *Heroic Verse*, consists theoretically of six dactyls. It may be represented thus:—

∠ ∪ ∪ | ∠ ∪ ∪ | ∠ | ∪ ∪ | ∠ ∪ ∪ | ∠ ∨ ∪ | ∠ ∨

or in musical notation as follows: -

a. For any one of the feet, except the fifth, a spondee may be substituted. The last foot is a trochee standing for a dactyl, but the final syllable is not measured, and the foot is called a spondee.

Rarely a spondee is found in the fifth place; the verse is then called *spondaic*. Thus in Ecl. iv. 49 the verse ands with incrementum.

b. The hexameter has always one principal casura — sometimes two — almost always accompanied by a pause in the sense.

The principal cæsura is usually after the thesis (masculine), less commonly in the arsis (feminine) of the third foot, dividing the verse into two parts.

It may also be after the thesis (less commonly in the arsis) of the fourth foot. In this case there is often another cæsura in the second foot, so that the verse is divided into three parts instead of two: as,—

partě fě | rox || ar | densque ocu | lis || et | sibilă | collă. — Æn. v. 277.

REMARK. — Often the only indication of the principal among a number of cassuras is the break in the sense.

c. The introductory verses of the Æneid, divided according to the foregoing rules, will appear as follows. The principal cæsura in each verse is marked by double lines:—

Armă vi | rumque că | nō || Trō | iae quī | prīmūs āb | ōrīs

Itāli | am fā | tō pròfū | gus || Lā | vīnzāque | vēnīt

lītōrā, | multzm ille | et ter | rīs || iac | tātūs et | altō

vī sūpe | rūm sae | vae || mēmō | rem Iū | nōnīs ob | īrām;

multā quo | que et bel | lō pas | sus || dum | conderet | urbēm,

īnfer | retque de | ōs Lātī | ō, || genūs | unde Lā | tīnum,

Albā | nīque pā | trēs, || at | que altae | moenīā | Rōmae.

The feminine casura is seen in the following: -

Dīs gĕnǐ | tī pŏtŭ | ērĕ : || tĕ | nent mĕdǐ | à omnĭă | silvae.

- Æn. vi. 131.

2. Elegiac Stanza.

363. The Elegiac Stanza consists of two lines, — an hexameter followed by a pentameter.¹

The Pentameter verse is the same as the hexameter, except that it omits the last half of the third foot and of the sixth foot. Thus,—

- a. The Pentameter verse is thus to be scanned as two half-verses, the second of which always consists of two dactyls followed by a single syllable.
- b. The Pentameter has no Cæsura; but the first half-verse must always end with a word, followed by a pause to complete the measure.²
- c. The following verses will illustrate the forms of the Elegiac Stanza:—
- ¹ Called *pentameter* by the old grammarians, who divided it, formally, into five feet (two dactyls or spondees, a spondee, and two anapæsts), as follows:—

||_____|

² The time of this pause, however, may be filled by the *protraction* of the preceding syllable: thus, —

- U U | - U U | - U U | - X

cum sŭbît | illî | us trīs | tissîmă | noctîs î | māgō
quā mîhî | suprē | mum | tempüs în | urbě fǔ | ǐt,
cum rěpě | tō noc | tem quā | tot mîhî | cāră rě | līquī,
lābǐtǔr | ex ŏcǔ | līs | nunc quŏquě | guttă mě | īs.
iam prŏpě | lūx ădě | rat quā | mē dis | cēděrě | Caesar
fīnībǔs | extrē | mae | iūssěrăt | Ausŏnǐ | ae.
— OVID, Trist. i. 3.

864–875. For these sections showing other forms of verse, and for the metres of Horace, see the larger grammar.

MISCELLANEOUS.

I. RECKONING OF TIME.

Note.—The Roman Year was designated, in earlier times, by the names of the Consuls; but was afterwards reckoned from the building of the City (ab urbe conditā, annō urbis conditae), the date of which was assigned by Varro to a period corresponding with B.C. 753. In order, therefore, to reduce Roman dates to those of the Christian era, the year of the city is to be subtracted from 754: e.g. A.U.C. 691 = B.C. 63.

Before Cæsar's reform of the Calendar (B.C. 46), the Roman year consisted of 355 days; March, May, Quīntīlis (July), and October having each 31 days; February having 28, and each of the remainder 29. The "Julian year," by Cæsar's reformed Calendar, had 365 days, divided into months as at present. Every fourth year the 24th of February (vi. kal. Mārt.) was counted twice, giving 29 days to that month: hence the year was called Bissextīlis. The month Quīntīlis received the name Iūlius (July), in honor of Julius Cæsar; and Sextīlis was called Augustus (August), in honor of his successor. The Julian year (see below) remained unchanged till the adoption of the Gregorian Calendar.

- 876. Dates, according to the Roman Calendar, are reckoned as follows:
 - a. The first day of the month was called Kalendae (Calends).
- b. On the fifteenth day of March, May, July, and October, but the thirteenth of the others, were the Table (Ides), the day of Full Moon.
- c. On the seventh day of March, May, July, and October, but the fifth of the other months, were the Nonae (Nones or ninths).
- d. From the three points thus determined, the days of the month were reckoned backwards, as so many days before the, Nones, the Ides, or the Calends. The point of departure was, by Roman custom, counted in the reckoning, the second day being three days before, etc.:—

Hence if the given date be Calends, add two to the number of days in the month preceding, — if Nortes or Ides, add one to that of the day on which they fall; — and from this sum subtract the given date: thus,—

viii. Kal. Feb. (33-8) = Jan. 25. iv. Non. Mār. (8-4) = Mar. 4. iv. Id. Sept. (14-4) = Sept. 10.

e. The days of the Roman month by the Julian Calendar, as thus ascertained, are given in the following Table:—

	Jan	uary	٠.	February.			March.			April.		
I.	KAL.	IAN		Kal.	FEE	3.	Kai	. MĀ	RTIAE	Kal.	API	RĪLĒS
2.	ıv. N	ōn.	Iān.	ıv. N	ōn. l	Feb.	vı. Ì	Võn. N	Aārt.	ıv. N	lõn.	Apr.
3.	iII.	"	"	III.	46	"	v.	"	"	III.	"	"
4.	prīd.	"	"	prīd.	"	"	IV.	"	"	prid.	"	"
5.	Non.	IAN	τ.	Non.	FEE	в.	III.	"	"	Non	. Apı	RILĒS
6.	vIII.	Īd. I	ān.	VIII.	Id. F	eb.	prīd.	"	"	VIII.	Īd. A	Apr.
7.	VII.	"	"	VII.	"	"	Non	MĀR	TIAE	VII.	"	"
8.	VI.	"	"	VI.	"	"	VIII.	Id. M	ſārt.	VI.	44	"
9.	v.	"	"	v.	"	"	VII.	"	"	v.	"	"
10.	IV.	"	44	IV.	"	"	VI.	"	"	IV.	"	"
II.	III.	"	"	III.	"	"	v.	"	"	III.	"	"
I 2.	prīd.	"	"	prīd.	"	"	IV.	"	"	prid.	"	"
13.	Īdūs	IĀN	•	$I D \overline{u} s$	Feb		III.	"	"	Īdūs	APR	ĪLĒS.
14.	XIX.	Kal.	Feb.	xvi.	Kal.	Mārtiās	prīd.	"	"	XVIII	. Ka	l. Māiās.
15.	XVIII	. "	".	xv.	"	46		MĀR		XVII.	"	"
16.	xvII.	"	"	XIV.	"	44	XVII	. Kal.	Aprīlīs.	xvi.	"	"
17.	xvı.	"	"	XIII.	"	"	XVI.	"	"	xv.	"	"
18.	xv.	"	"	XII.	"	44	xv.	"	"	xıv.	"	44
19.	XIV.	"	"	XI.	"	"	xıv.	46	"	XIII.	44	"
20.	XIII.	"	"	x.	"	66	XIII.	"	44	XII.	"	44
21.	XII.	"	"	ıx.	"	"	XII.	"	"	XI.	"	66
22.	XI.	"	"	VIII.	"	46	XI.	"	"	x.	66	"
23.	x.	"	"	VII.	"	"	x.	"	"	IX.	"	"
24.	IX.	"	"	VI.	"	"	ıx.	"	"	VIII.	"	66
2 5.	VIII.	"	"	v.	"	"	VIII.	"	"	VII.	"	"
26.	VII.	"	**	IV.	"	"	VII.	"	"	VI.	"	"
27.	VI.	"	46	III.	"	"	VI.	"	"	v.	46	"
28.	v.	"	"	prīd.	"	"	v.	"	"	IV.	46	44
29.	IV.	"	"	[prīd	Kal	Mārt.	IV.	"	"	III.	44	"
30.	III.	"	"	in lea	p-yea	ar, the	III.	44	"	prīd.	64	66
31.	prīd.	"	"	vi. Ka	d.(24	th) being	prīd.	"	"	(So J	une,	Sept.,
(So. Aug., Dec.)				count	ed tv	vice.]	(So May, July,Oct.) Nov.)					

Note. — Observe that a date before the Julian Reform (B.C. 46) would be found not by the above table, but by taking the earlier reckoning of the number of days in the month.

II. MEASURES OF VALUE, ETC.

877. The money of the Romans was in early times wholly of copper. The unit was the ās, nominally a pound in weight, but actually somewhat less. It was divided into twelve unciae (ounces).

In the third century B.C. the \overline{as} was gradually reduced to one-half of its original value. In the same century silver coins were introduced,—the $D\bar{e}n\bar{a}rius = 10$ asses; and the $S\bar{e}stertius = 2\frac{1}{2}$ asses.

378. The Sestertius was probably introduced at a time when the $\bar{a}s$ had been so far reduced that the value of the new coin $(2\frac{1}{2}$ asses) was equivalent to the original value of the $\bar{a}s$. Hence, the Sestertius (usually abbreviated to IIS or HS) came to be used a the unit of value, and nummus, coin, often means simply sestertius. As the reduction of the standard went on, the sestertius became equivalent to 4 asses. Gold was introduced later, the aureus being equal to 100 sesterces. The value of these coins is seen in the following table:—

 $2\frac{1}{2}$ asses = 1 sestertius or nummus (HS), value nearly 5 cents.

10 asses or 4 sestertii = 1 denarius . . " " 20 cents.

1000 sēstertiī = 1 sēstertium " " \$50.00.

Note. — The word sestertius is a shortened form of semis-tertius, the third one, a half. The abbreviation IIS or HS = duo et semis, $2\frac{1}{2}$, two and a half.

879. The Söstertium (probably originally the genitive plural of söstertius) was a sum of money, not a coin; the word is inflected regularly as a neuter noun: thus, tria söstertia = \$150.00.

When sestertium was combined with a numeral adverb, centēna mīlia (hundreds of thousands) was originally understood: thus deciens sestertium (deciens HS) = \$50,000. But later sestertium was inflected as a neuter singular, as deciens sestertio, etc..

In the statement of large sums sestertium is often omitted: thus sexāgiens (Rosc. Am. 2) signifies, sexāgiens [centena mīlia] sestertium (6,000,000 sesterces) = \$300,000 (nearly).

380. In the statement of sums of money in cipher, a line above the number indicates thousands; lines above and at the sides also, hundred-thousands. Thus Hs. DC. = 600 sestertii; Hs. \overline{DC} = 600,000 sestertii, or 600 sestertii; Hs. $|\overline{DC}|$ = 60,000,000 sestertii.

The Roman Measures of Length are the following: --

12 inches (unciae) = 1 Roman Foot (pēs: 11.65 English inches).

 $1\frac{1}{2}$ Feet = 1 Cubit (cubitum). - $2\frac{1}{2}$ Feet = 1 Degree or Step (gradus).

5 Feet = 1 Pace (passus). - 1000 Paces (mille passuum) = 1 Mile.

The Roman mile was equal to 4850 English feet.

The Iugerum, or unit of measure of land, was an area of 240 (Roman) feet long and 120 broad; a little less than 2 of an English acre.

382. The Measures of Weight are—

12 unciae (ounces) = 1 Pound (libra, about \(\frac{3}{4} \) lb. avoirdupois).

Fractional parts (weight or coin) are -

1. $(\frac{1}{12})$, uncia.	5. $\binom{5}{12}$, quīncunx.	9. (¾), dōdrāns.
2. $(\frac{1}{6})$, sextāns.	6. $(\frac{1}{2})$, sēmissis.	10. $(\frac{5}{6})$, dextāns.
3. $\binom{1}{4}$, quadrāns.	7. $(\frac{7}{12})$, septunx.	11. $(\frac{1}{1}\frac{1}{2})$, deunx.
4. (1). triens.	8. (2), bēssis.	12. ās.

The Talent (talentum) was a Greek weight (τάλαντον) = 60 librae.

The Measures of Capacity are —

12 cyathi = 1 sextārius (nearly a pint).

16 sextāriī = 1 modius (peck).

6 sextārii = 1 congius (3 quarts, liquid measure).

8 congii=1 amphora (6 gallons).

384. The following are some of the commonest abbreviations found in Latin inscriptions and sometimes in editions of the classic authors.

A. U., annō urbis. A. U. C., ab urbe conditā. C., condemnō, comitiālis. cos., consul (consule). coss., consules (consulibus). D., dīvus. D. D., dono dedit. D. D. D., dat, dicat, dedicat. des., dēsīgnātus. D. M., dit mānēs. eq. Rom., eques Romānus.

A., absolvē, antīguē.

F., fīlius, fāstus. Ictus., iūrisconsultus. Id., īdūs. imp., imperātor.

I. O. M., Iovī optimā māximā.

K., Kal., Kalendae. N., nepos, nefāstus.

N. L., non liquet. P. C., patrēs conscriptī.

pl., plēbis.

pont. max., pontifex māximus.

pop., populus.

P. R., populus Romānus.

pr., praetor.

proc., pròconsul.

Q. B. F. F. Q. S., quod bonum fēlīx

faustumque sit. Quir., Quirītēs.

resp., rēspūblica, respondet.

S., salūtem, sacrum, senātus.

s. c., senātūs consultum.

S. D. P., salūtem dīcit plūrimam.

S. P. Q. R., Senātus Populusque Rōmānus.

S. V. B. E. E. V., sī valēs bene est, ego valeō.

pl. tr., tribūnus plēbis.

U. (U. R.), uti rogās.

GLOSSARY

OF TERMS USED IN GRAMMAR, RHETORIC, AND PROSODY.

NOTE. — Many of these terms are pedantic names given by early grammarians to forms of speech used naturally by writers who were not conscious that they were using figures at all — as, indeed, they were not. Thus, when one says, "It gave me no little pleasure," he is unconsciously using Litotes; when he says, "John went up the street, James down," Antithesis; when he says, "High as the sky," Hyperbole. Many were given under a mistaken notion of the nature of the usage referred to. Thus med and ted (§ 98. c) were supposed to owe their d to Paragoge, sümpsi its p to Epenthesis. Such a sentence as "See my coat, how well it fits!" was supposed to be an irregularity to be accounted for by Prolepsis.

Many of these, however, are convenient designations for phenomena which often occur; and most of them have a historic interest, of one kind or another.

885. I. GRAMMATICAL TERMS.

Anacoluthon: a change of construction in the same sentence, leaving the first part broken or unfinished.

Anastrophe: inversion of the usual order of words.

Apodosis: the conclusion of a conditional sentence (see Protasis).

Archaism: an adoption of old or obsolete forms. Asyndeton: omission of conjunctions (§ 208. b).

Barbarism: adoption of foreign or unauthorized forms.

Brachylogy: brevity of expression.

Crasis: contraction of two vowels into one (§ 10. c).

Ellipsis: omission of a word or words necessary to complete the sense (§ 177. note).

Enallage: substitution of one word or form for another.

Epenthesis: insertion of a letter or syllable (§ 11. c).

Hellenism: use of Greek forms of constructions.

Hendiadys (ἐν διὰ δυοῖν): the use of two nouns, with a conjunction, instead of a single modified noun.

Hypallage: interchange of constructions.

Hysteron proteron: a reversing of the natural order of ideas.

Applied to cases where the natural sequence of events is violated in language because the later event is of more importance than the earlier and so comes first to the mind. This was supposed to be an artificial embellishment in Greek, and so was imitated in Latin. It is still found in artless narrative; cf. "Bred and Born in a Brier Bush" (Uncle Remus).

Metathesis: transposition of letters in a word (§ 11. d).

Paragoge: addition of a letter or letters to the end of a word.

Parenthesis: insertion of a phrase interrupting the construction.

Periphrasis: a roundabout way of expression (circumlocution).

Pleonasm: the use of needless words.

Polysyndeton: the use of an unnecessary number of copulative conjunctions.

Prolepsis: the use of a word in the clause preceding the one where it would naturally appear (anticipation).

Protasis: a clause introduced by a conditional expression (if, when, whoever), leading to a conclusion called the Apodosis (§ 304).

Syncope: omission of a letter or syllable from the middle of a word. Synesis (constructio ad sensum): agreement of words according to the sense, and not the grammatical form (§ 182).

Tmesis: the separation of two parts of a compound word by other words (cutting).

Zeugma: the use of a verb with two different words, to only one of which it strictly applies (yoking).

386. II. RHETORICAL FIGURES.

Allegory: a narrative in which abstract ideas figure as circumstances, events, or persons, in order to enforce some moral truth.

Alliteration: the use of several words that begin with the same sound.

Analogy: argument from resemblances.

[Anaphora: the repetition of a word at the beginning of successive clauses (§ 344. f).

Antithesis: opposition, or contrast of parts (for emphasis, § 344).

(Antonomasia: use of a proper for a common noun, or the reverse.

Aposiopesis: an abrupt pause for rhetorical effect.

Catachresis: a harsh metaphor (abūsiō, misuse of words).

Chiasmus: a reversing of the order of words in corresponding pairs. Climax: a gradual increase of emphasis, or enlargement of meaning.

Cumax: a gradual increase of emphasis, or emargement of mean

Euphemism: the mild expression of a painful or repulsive idea.

Euphony: the choice of words for their agreeable sound.

Hyperbaton: violation of the usual order of words.

Hyperbole: exaggeration for rhetorical effect.

Irony: the use of words which naturally convey a sense contrary to what is meant.

Litotes: the affirming of a thing by denying its contrary (§ 209. c).

Metaphor: the figurative use of words, indicating an object by some resemblance.

Metonymy: the use of the name of one thing to indicate some kindred thing.

Onomatopæia: a fitting of sound to sense in the use of words.

Oxymoron: the use of contradictory words in the same phrase.

Paronomasia: the use of words of like sound.

Prosopopæia: personification.

Synchysis: the interlocked order (§ 344. h).

Synecdoche: the use of the name of a part for the whole or the reverse.

887. III. TERMS OF PROSODY.

Acatalectic: complete, as a verse or a series of feet (§ 359. a).

Anaclasis: breaking a rhythm by substituting different measures.

Anacrusis: the unaccented syllable or syllables preceding a verse.

Antistrophe: a series of verses corresponding to one which has gone before (cf. strophe).

Arsis: the unaccented part of a foot (§ 358).

Basis: a single foot preceding the regular movement of a verse.

Cæsura: the ending of a word within a metrical foot (§ 358. b).

Catalexis: loss of a final syllable (or syllables) making the series catalectic (incomplete, § 359. a).

Contraction: the use of one long syllable for two short (§ 357).

Correption: shortening of a long syllable for metrical reasons.

Diaresis: the coincidence of the end of a foot with the end of a word (§ 358. c).

Dialysis: the use of i (consonant) and v as vowels (silüa = silva).

Diastole: the lengthening of a short syllable by emphasis (§ 359f).

Dimeter: consisting of two like measures.

Dipody; consisting of two like feet.

Distich: a system or series of two verses.

Ecthlipsis: the suppression of a final syllable in -m before a word beginning with a vowel (§ 359. d).

Elision: the cutting off of a final before a following initial vowel.

Heptameter: consisting of seven feet.

Hexameter: consisting of six measures.

Hexapody: consisting of six feet.

Hiatus: the meeting of two vowels without contraction or elision.

Ictus: the metrical accent (§ 358. a).

Irrational: not conforming strictly to the unit of time (§ 356. note).

Logaædic: varying in rhythm, making the effect resemble prose.

Monometer: consisting of a single measure.

Mora: the unit of time = one short syllable (\S 355. a).

Pentameter: consisting of five measures.

Pentapody: consisting of five feet.

Penthemimeris: consisting of five half-feet.

Protraction: extension of a syllable beyond its normal length. Resolution: the use of two short syllables for one long (§ 357).

Strophe: a series of verses making a recognized metrical whole (stanza), which may be indefinitely repeated.

Synaresis: i (vowel) and u becoming consonants before a vowel.

Synalæpha: the same as elision (§ 359. c. Rem.).

Synapheia: elision between two verses (§ 359. c. Rem.).

Synizesis: the combining of two vowels in one syllable (§ 347. c).

Syncope: loss of a short vowel.

Systole: shortening of a syllable regularly long.

Tetrameter: consisting of four measures.

Tetrapody: consisting of four feet.

Tetrastich: a system of four verses.

Thesis: the accented part of a foot (§ 358).

Trimeter: consisting of three measures.

Tripody: consisting of three feet.

Tristich: a system of three verses.

1+24= 1+4=0 y=1

ABBREVIATIONS

USED IN CITING AUTHORS AND THEIR WORKS.

Cæsar:

B. C., Bellum Civile.
B. G., Bellum Galli-

B. Afr., Bellum Africanum.

Catull., Catullus. Cic., Cicero:

> Ac., Acad., Academira.

Arch., pro Archia.
Att., ad Atticum.

Cæc., pro Caecina. Cæl., pro M. Caelio.

Cat., in Catilinam.

Clu., pro Cluentio.
C. M., Cato Major.

Deiot., pro Deiotaro. De Or., de Oratore.

Div., de Divinatione.

Cæcil., Divinatio in

Fam., ad Familiares.

Fat., de Fato.

Fin., de Finibus.

Flac., pro Flacco. Font., pro M. Fonteio.

Ad Her. [ad Heren-

nium].

Inv., de Inventione.

Læl., Laelius.

Legg., de Legibus. Agr., de Lege Agraria. Lig., pro Ligario.

Manil., pro Lege Ma-

nilia.

Marc., pro Marcello.

Mil., pro Milone. Mur., pro Murena. N. D., de Natura Deo-

rum. Off., de Officiis.

Or., Orator.

Par., Paradoxa.

Part. Or., de Parti-

Phil., Philippicae.

Planc., pro Plancio.

Pis., in Pisonem.

Quinct., pro Quinctio.

Q. Fr., ad Q. Fratrem.

Rabir., pro Rabirio. Rep., de Republica.

Rosc. Am., pro Roscio

Amerino.
Rosc. Com., pro Roscio

Comoedo.

Sest., pro Sestio. Sulla, pro Sulla.

Top., Topica.

Tusc., Tusculanae Dis-

putationes.

Univ., de Universo.

Vatin., in Vatinium. Verr., in Verrem.

Hor., Horace:

A. P., de Arte Poetica. Ep., Epistulae.

Epod., Epodes.

Od., Odes.

Sat., Satires. Juv., Juvenal.

Liv., Livy.

Lucr., Lucretius.

Mart., Martial. Nep., Nepos. o- Ov., Ovid:

F., Fasti.

M., Metamorphoses.

ex P., Epistulae ex Ponto.

Trist., Tristia.

Pers., Persius.

Plaut., Plautus.

Plin., Pliny, senior:

H. N., Historia Natu-

Plin., Pliny, junior :

Ep., Epistulae.

Prop., Propertius.

Q. C., Q. Curtius.

Quint., Quintilian.

Sall., Sallust :

Cat., Catilina.

Jug., Jugurtha.

Sen., Seneca:

Ep., Epistulae.

Q. N., Quaestiones Naturales.

Sil. It., Silius Italicus. Suet., Suetonius.

Tac., Tacitus:

Agr., Agricola.

A., Ann., Annales.

H., Historiae.

Ter., Terence.

Virg., Virgil:

Æn., Æneid.

E., Eclogae.

G., Georgica.

INDEX OF WORDS AND SUBJECTS.

··· (M) ····

Note. — The numerical references are to sections, with a few exceptions in which the page (p.) is referred to. The letters refer to subsections. The letter N. signifies Note; R., Remark. Abl. = ablative; acc. = accusative; adj. = adjective; adv. = adverb; apod. = apodosis; app. = appositive; comp. = comparison or compound; compar. = comparative; constr. = construction; conj. = conjugation or conjunction; dat. = dative; gen. = genitive; gend. = gender; ind. disc. = indirect discourse; loc. = locative; prep. = preposition; subj. = subject or subjunctive; yb. = verb; w. = with. (Other abbreviations present no difficulty.)

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